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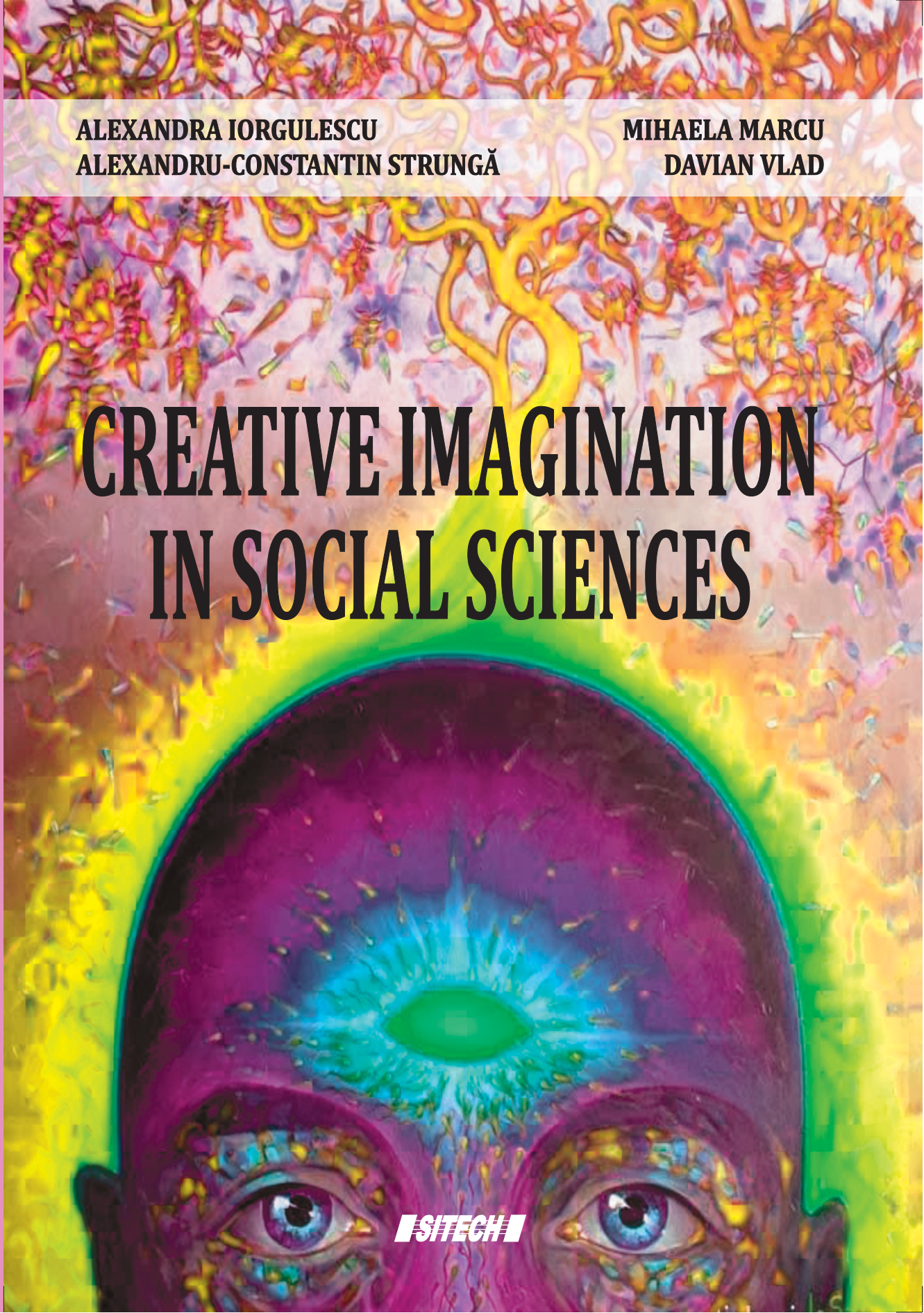
CREATIVE IMAGINATION IN SOCIAL SCIENCES



SITECH

ALEXANDRA IORGULESCU MIHAELA MARCU
ALEXANDRU-CONSTANTIN STRUNGĂ DAVIAN VLAD
(EDITORS)

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I. COMMUNICATION AND JOURNALISM

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LANGUAGE OF COMMUNICATION AND JOURNALISM. POLYSEMIA

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Abstract:
Our article is part of a series of steps aimed at analyzing the terminology of communication and journalism. Going into the category of social sciences, particularly by developers their after 90s, communication and journalism outline their specific language, whose research reveals, in addition to specific features of a given subject area, and some aspects more special, belonging usually to nomenclatures with a long tradition, such as medical, linguistic, legal etc. We refer here to polysemics terms of communication and journalism, seen as a source of dynamic semantics, the direction of interest in the development of specialized words, translated by adding new meanings in specific languages.
Key-words: terminology, evolution, polysemics

0.1. Cercetarea terminologiilor din diverse domenii constituie cuprinsul unor numeroase studii de specialitate, căci interesul dezvoltat în această direcție de lingviști se justifică prin faptul că descrierea limbajelor de specialitate ridică un alt tip de probleme decât limba comună. ,,Fiind în principiu, domenii închise, inaccesibile specialiștilor, abordarea lor constituie o altă perspectivă de apreciere a dinamicii vocabularului" (Forăscu 2007 617).

Caracterizate prin monorefențialitate și uniformizare, terminologiile specifice diferitelor științe aduc în prim-planul cercetărilor un aspect bizar, oarecum necaracteristic, anume polisemia. Putem afirma că, în realitate, există două niveluri posibile de analiză a termenilor de specialitate: unul de suprafață, vizând împrumuturile din diferite limbi moderne sau din latină, ușor identificabile și evaluabile, în această categorie încadrându-se termeni neechivoci și monosemantici. Al doilea nivel, cu o structură mai profundă, cuprinde elemente având ca particularitate polisemia, o sursă de ambiguitate, considerată, în principiu, drept o condiție restrictivă în limbajele de specialitate.

0.2. Polisemia este definită în *Micul dicționar de terminologie lingvistică* semnat de Gheorghe Constantinescu-Dobridor drept ,,însușirea unui cuvânt de a evoca mai multe sensuri; stare a unui cuvânt care are capacitatea de a indica fie mai multe caracteristici semantice (seme), fie caracteristica semantică comună (sensul) a mai multor obiecte" (p.323). Așadar, polisemia este un factor important de generare a unor noi sensuri și sprijină una dintre cele mai însemnate modalități de manifestare a vocabularului, anume dinamica acestuia.

0.3. Intrând în categoria științelor sociale, îndeosebi prin dezvoltarea lor după anii 90, comunicarea și jurnalismul își conturează terminologii specifice, a căror cercetare scoate la iveală, pe lângă caracteristicile specifice unui domeniu științific, și unele aspecte mai speciale, aparținând, de regulă, unor limbaje de specialitate cu o tradiție îndelungată, cum ar fi cele medicale, lingvistice, juridice etc. Ne referim aici la polisemia termenilor din domeniul comunicării și jurnalismului, privită ca sursă de dinamică semantică, ca o direcție de interes în evoluția cuvintelor specializate, tradusă prin adăugarea de noi accepții la nivelul limbajului respectiv.

0.4. Contextul mutațiilor științifice privite în diacronie, ca și contactul permanent dintre limbile diverselor terminologii au determinat imposibilitatea păstrării monosemantismului termenilor de specialitate, privit ca un model de maximă simplitate. Nici specificul lexicului specializat din domeniul comunicării și jurnalismului nu se reduce la caracterul denotativ al termenilor care-l compun, căci aceste cuvinte funcționează în sistemul general al limbii române, intră în contact cu alte semne lingvistice, au loc schimbări, evoluții semantice.

Pe baza materialului, care constituie cuprinsul demersului nostru, vom urmări două dintre direcțiile de evoluție a terminologiei din domeniul comunicării și jurnalismului: *polisemia internă*, „ce caracterizează termenii care dezvoltă sensuri suplimentare la nivelul acestor limbaje și *polisemia externă* care constă în migrarea termenilor de specialitate spre limba comună, dezvoltând valori apropiate sau mai îndepărtate de sensul specializat” (Forăscu 2007 618).

Termenii excerptați au fost cercetați pe baza dicționarelor: Florin Marcu – *Marele dicționar de neologisme* (MDN), Ioan Oprea, Carmen-Gabriela Pamfil, Rodica Radu, Victoria Zăstroiu - *Dicționarul universal al limbii române (*DULR), Ion Coteanu (coordonator) – *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române* (DEX), Cristian Florin Popescu - *Dicționar explicativ de jurnalism, relații publice și publicitate* (DEJRLP), Marian Petcu (coordonator) - *Dicționar enciclopedic de comunicare și termeni asociați* (DECTA).

0.5. Potrivit materialului investigat, **polisemia internă** nu se bucură de o reprezentare consistentă. De exemplu, *editorial* este înregistrat în dicționare cu două sensuri: 1.care aparține editurii sau editării (adj.); 2.articol de revistă, de ziar, care exprimă părerea conducerii unei publicații față de o problemă importantă (subst.) (DEX, p.331, MDN, p.331; DULR, p.476). În *Dicționarul explicativ de jurnalism, relații publice și publicitate,* termenul *editorial* apare cu următoarele sensuri: 1. cea mai importantă specie a jurnalismului de opinie. Exprimă atitudinea ziarului față de realitatea politică, economică, socială etc. 2. spațiu redacțional; 3. politică editorială (p. 121). Dezvoltarea semantică din acest ultim dicționar are în vedere doar forma substantivală a cuvântului *editorial* care funcționează ca termen integrat domeniului jurnalistic. Deosebirile între accepțiunile înregistrate sunt minime, iar termenul, frecvent utilizat în limba curentă, dovedește capacitatea de a-și conserva sensurile specializate, fără a dezvolta valori conotative.

Într-o situație aproximativ asemănătoare se află *interviu*, care este înregistrat în DEX cu două sensuri absolut obligatorii ca acest gen jurnalistic să-și dovedească eficacitatea: 1. convorbire între o personalitate politică, culturală etc. și un ziarist, în cursul căreia îi pune întrebări spre a afla părerile personalității în diverse probleme, în vederea publicării lor în presă sau a difuzării lor la radio și televiziune; 2. text al acestei convorbiri, apărut în presă și difuzat prin radio și televiziune (p. 501). Aceleași sensuri apar pentru termenul *interviu* în *Dicționarul universal al limbii române* și în *Marele dicționar de neologisme*, dar este menționat totodată și sensul din domeniul sociologiei: convorbire a unui anchetator cu persoanele supuse unei cercetări sociologice; convorbire între un angajator și un candidat la un loc de muncă. Aici vorbim despre o migrare de la o terminologie la alta, chiar adiacente fiind, o problemă care nu face obiectul demersului nostru, deoarece dezbaterile pe această temă sunt multiple și ar depăși economia lucrării de față.

Termenul *interviu* dovedește cu claritate că a dezvoltat sensuri care intră în sfera polisemiei interne, după cum este înregistrat în *Dicționarul explicativ de jurnalism, relații publice și publicitate*. Trei sunt perspectivele din care poate fi privit: 1.abordare generică aparținând comunicării (relație interpersonală – relație instituțională) în care interviul reprezintă un instrument de lucru al managerului; 2.abordare sociologică – în ocurență, ancheta sociologică și sondajul de opinie; 3.în jurnalism: a) tehnică de colectare a informației; b) gen redacțional; c) text în presa tipărită, în radio și televiziune, pentru acestea din urmă apar încă două variante: interviu în direct, interviu înregistrat (p.171).

Un alt exemplu îl constituie *format*, înregistrat cu sensuri specializate din domeniul presei tipărite, radioului și televiziunii doar în *Dicționarul explicativ de jurnalism, relații publice și publicitate*: 1. în presa tipărită: dimensiunea ziarului; format mare vs. tabloid; 2. formatul postului de radio sau de televiziune, în strânsă legătură cu segmentul de public țintit; 3. tip de script în televiziune; 4. tip de program; 5. formatul emisiunii, adică structura ei. Surprinzător, niciunul dintre dicționarele menționate în acest demers nu înregistrează cuvântul *format* ca termen de specialitate în mass-media. Absența unor astfel de atestări ar avea ca explicație faptul că dicționarele nu pot surprinde toate manifestările de evoluție și dinamism ale vocabularului limbii române.

0.6. Deschiderea termenilor de specialitate din domeniul comunicării și al mass-mediei către **polisemia externă** este corelată cu accesibilitatea și cu dinamica semantică, tradusă prin migrarea termenilor dinspre zona monoreferențială și monosemantică spre limba comună, unde, accidental, pot stabili relații cu alți termeni, din alte domenii, care și-au pierdut încărcătura specializată.

Termenul poate fi analizat din două perspective: una intradomenială, care constituie apanajul specialistului în domeniu și care fixează locul *termenului-concept* în ierarhia terminologiei respective, înlăturând o serie de mecanisme de evoluție a acestuia, printre care și polisemia. Potrivit celei de-a doua perspective, extradomenială, care caracterizează și acțiunea noastră, avem de-a face cu

termenul-lexem, care intră în sfera unor variații conceptual-semantice și contextuale, devenind polisemantic.

Un termen din domeniul relațiilor publice este *atractivitate*, consemnat în *Dicționarul explicativ de jurnalism, relații publice și publicitate* ca fiind *unul dintre nivelele la care operează câmpul comunicării instituționale* (p. 57). Prin deplasări semantice, termenul a alunecat înspre limbajul uzual, înregistrând valori conotative: ex: *să formuleze întrebări corespunzătoare pentru a asigura materialului atractivitate* (Ion Gheție, *Drumul*, p. 95).

Provenit din zona jurnalismului de informare și a comunicării de masă, termenul *happening*, al cărui sens specializat este de: 1.fapt-eveniment spontan sau planificat care întrunind calitățile știrii, este publicabil – publicat. 2.formă de spectacol teatral în care publicul este chemat să intervină (DEJRLP, p.153), a căpătat o utilizare frecventă în limba comună: *Unii îmi povestesc ce i-a impresionat îndeosebi. Îi impresionează mai ales ceea ce se numește* ***«happening»****-urile, manifestările-spectacol, care, de fapt, nici nu țin de artă* Sc. 21 X 69 p. 4.; *„În istoria teatrului, de la începuturi, au existat nenumărate spectacole lipsite de un text inițial și bazate în foarte mare măsură pe improvizație, după cum cunoaștem și în zilele noastre forme ale teatrului –* ***happening****-ul, de pildă – în care spontaneitatea joacă rolul hotărâtor."* Cont. 22 III 74 p. 4.; *„Formă de manifestare artistică, de comunicare interumană sau de comportament socio-cultural,* ***happeningul*** *a devenit un mod de viață, înglobând spectacolul străzii, spectacolele de sală sau pur și simplu în aer liber, în stațiile de tramvaie, în parcuri, absolut pretutindeni unde ajung oamenii."* Contr. 27 IX 91 p. 10; v. și Cont. 1 XI 74 p. 4, R.lit. 17/93 p. 16 (sursa – *Dicționarul de cuvinte recente*, 2013).

Din categoria termenilor aparținând jurnalismului este *șapou*, preluat din limba franceză și înregistrat cu sensul specializat de *element al titrării în presa tipărită, care apare în texte mai lungi decât o filă și jumătate; texte complexe* (DEJRLP, p.379). Prin extindere, cuvântul este folosit în beletristică, de exemplu: ,,îi duceam exemplare pentru As, printre care unul antologic, la care trebuia să așez un șapou, și, pentru că nu aveam altă soluție la îndemână, am atașat acel șapou cu pioneze"(Sorin Stoica, *Dincolo de frontiere*, p.126).

0.7. Slaba reprezentare a polisemiei în cazul terminologiei din domeniul comunicării și jurnalismului ar avea ca primă justificare faptul că aceste limbaje de specialitate s-au conturat târziu, după anii 90, când țara noastră capătă un alt sens al evoluției sale, cel al adevăratei democrații. Din consultarea materialului de specialitate, am observat că și în acest spațiu terminologic acționează două tendințe opuse: pe de o parte, *precizia și univocitatea*, reprezentate în special prin neologismele pătrunse în limba română cu forma originară a etimonului, în special anglicisme; pe de altă parte, *ambiguitatea*, sursă generatoare de sensuri noi, mai puțin întâlnită, chiar dacă este vorba despre un domeniu de larg interes pentru vorbitori (Domović, 2015) .

O altă explicație a situației descrise anterior constă în existența în plan lingvistic a mai multor nivele:

I. termeni aparținând comunicării, relațiilor publice și jurnalismului strict specializați (exemplu: *anchor* = funcție redacțională în radio și televiziune, prezentatorul radiojurnalului- tele jurnalului; *cover editor* = editor al paginii întâi; *dateline* = element obligatoriu în textul de agenție transmis abonaților, element care se află înaintea textului propriu-zis);

II. termeni comuni cu alte terminologii (exemplu: *strategie* – termen din domeniul militar, utilizat frecvent în marketingul politic, ca medotă ce permite definirea unei axe generale de comunicare din care rezultă mai multe teme în funcție de multitudinea țintelor de atins*; diagnostic*, termen medical, preluat de marketingul politic, care raționalizează comunicarea: *diagnosticul* se bazează pe analiza datelor cantitative și pe elaborarea anchetelor calitative pentru a răspunde mai bine așteptărilor cetățenilor*; empatie*, termen preluat din psihologie, este una dintre cele mai importante arme ale jurnalistului în interviu, este un indiciu al maturizării în comunicare);

III. cuvinte care capătă sens specializat prin contextualizare (exemplu: *derapaj mediatic, încrucișarea surselor, politică editorială, poziționarea produsului, poziționarea imaginii* etc.);

IV. termeni proveniți din limba comună care, datorită utilizării lor frecvente, ajung să dezvolte accepțiuni proprii științelor comunicării și mass-mediei. În această situație, sensul specializat este perceput în grade diferite de receptorul mesajului, în funcție de gradul de instrucție: (exemplu: *manșetă*, înregistrat în DEX, DULR, MDN cu sensurile: partea de jos a mânecii unei cămăși (bărbătești) sau a unei bluze; bandă (detașabilă) aplicată ca garnitură la partea de jos a unei mâneci. Partea de jos (răsfrântă) a pantalonilor. Porțiune de la începutul unui ciorap tricotat, lucrată de obicei ca un elastic. 2. Garnitură de piele sau de cauciuc, în formă de inel sau de cilindru, care servește la etanșarea unor deschideri. Acestor sensuri li se adaugă și cele care transformă acest cuvânt în termen de specialitate din domeniul jurnalismului: 1.titlu cu caractere aldine, imprimat pe prima pagină a unui ziar sau a unei publicații periodice, care anunță o știre importantă; 2. text scurt folosit ca titlu generic pentru mai multe articole de ziar, cu o temă comună).

08. Dacă în limba comună granița dintre variatele domenii este estompată, în limbajele de specialitate apar scheme conceptuale proprii unei anumite științe sau care se regăsesc în mai multe domenii, fiind uneori dificilă stabilirea unei prime proveniențe. Această ultimă remarcă devine o caracteristică a limbajului de specialitate din domeniul comunicării și jurnalismului, care, format mai târziu la noi decât alte terminologii, preferă împrumutarea unor termeni din engleză, franceză, latină, fără adaptarea lor la specificul limbii române sau își conturează discursul specializat prin interdisciplinaritate.

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JOURNALISTIC PROXIMITY – FROM CRISIS TO TRANSITION

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Abstract

In this article, we analyze the digital age of the local media, which can be a success, not a crisis. Entered into digital age direct from the rapid and chaotic transition from communism, from an absolute control, towards an almost absolute freedom, the Romanian press is forced to face this new challenge without having the time rediscovering its own identity. The effects are not a few. An entrepreneurial ignorance, the economic vulnerability, even the professional ignorance, the absence of some strong traditions, of a known and accepted in the guild landmark threatens the very essence of the press. The present analysis suggests a line of approach, such as understanding the crisis generated by the digital era as a transition or as an accumulation of information and opportunities for public rapprochement.

Keywords: digital era, proximity, local press, economic vulnerability

Introducere

Jurnalismul pare că traversează în anii aceştia o nouă criză, care poate să însemne, de fapt, trecerea la o nouă vârstă, la o nouă etapă pe scara evoluției. Cât va fi, însă, transformare (ca efect al crizei) și cât acumulare (ca efect al tranziției) rămâne de analizat după ce era digitală ne va fi condus către noile orizonturi.

Istoric, adresabilitatea directă radiofonică a avut mai degrabă impact asupra strategiilor de comunicare publicitară, și mai puțin asupra esenței profesiei de jurnalist. Senzația de apropiere câștigată prin inserarea vocii în ambientul domestic a determinat grijă la nivelul expresivității, al stilisticii, schimbări de ordin praxemic, dar nu schimbări de structurare a substanței discursive jurnalistice.

Protocolul informațional – care include acuratețea atât a redactării, dar, mai ales, a informării, ritualul obiectivității, saturația informațională, credibilitatea (dacă nu chiar valoarea de adevăr) – a rămas același. Cum observa Dominique Wolton, „procesul de producere a informației seamănă cu o *imensă piramidă inversată"* (p. 257) – acest tip producere – receptare este universal, este genetic. Comunicatorii profesioniști au primit, însă, o responsabilitate în plus, aceea a fructificării proximității fonice create de tehnologie în continuarea proximității ideologice și afective.

Următorul val tehnologic, imaginea televizată a venit în continuarea firească, logică – am zice azi – a fotografiei. A generat televiziunea o criză în jurnalism, în comunicarea jurnalistică sau în cea publicitară? A generat

televiziunea o criză profesională? Ce a pierdut jurnalismul prin apariția televiziunii? Presa scrisă înseamnă un răgaz de elaborare informațională și de receptare. Televiziunea înseamnă un anumit registru tehnic de elaborare a produsului, nu a informației. Volumul și viteza informării par să fi crescut. Cât este stilistică și cât este informație pură? S-a schimbat numărul unghiurilor de abordare și nu informația ca atare. Aceasta multidimesionalitate stilistică poate fi înțeleasă ca o liberalizare a tipurilor de sensibilitate, ca o supratensionare a proximităților expresive și imagistice.

Many-to-many. Anything goes. Who is who?

Actualmente, discursivitatea jurnalistică escaladează plurivocalitatea, această para-definiție a comunicării *many-to-many*. Reafirmarea autorității instituționale și repoziționarea pe o piață aparent haotică – oricum greu de cartografiat – sunt țintele de profit (implicit) pe care le are de atins jurnalismul. Față în față (sau, în umăr la umăr pe același culoar către receptor) cu confesiunea publică – tipul de discurs pe care-l cultivă rețelele de socializare, dar și blogosfera – jurnalismul are de recalibrat ceea ce-l definește, până la urmă, proximitatea instituțională.

Retrospectiva relevă acest traseu, această tendință a comunicării de a reconfigura proximitatea, cu ajutorul tehnologiei, dinspre sunet, prin imagine, către autocomunicare.

În chip tradițional, proximitatea înseamnă valorificarea trăsăturilor comune ale grupurilor, respectiv, ale tipurilor de public. Dinspre tematicile general-umane, care debutează de pe axa instinctelor vitale, spre valorile de castă, de familie, de *self-estime*, s-a ajuns azi la ceea ce studiile de specialitate numesc fragmentarea publicurilor cu răspuns în targetarea pieței, respectiv în produse mediatice de nișă, adică transformarea proximității din lege a discursului jurnalistic, a definirii interesului public, în soluție de marketing, chiar pentru jurnalismul *hard*, după experimentul (de succes) al presei de conținut tabloid. Proximitatea spațială, socială, afectivă, temporală nu mai reprezintă criterii de selecție a unei informații, ci mobil de selecție al unei instituții, al unui produs macro mediatic.

Un posibil răspuns la întrebarea asupra câștigurilor aduse presei de era digitală este redistribuirea raporturilor de forțe tocmai pe tabla proximității, respectiv o recalibrare a produsului mediatic local, o soi de „revanșă a geografiei" cum o numea Dominique Wolton (p. 236). Ar fi o naivitate, un idealism anacronic să se deschidă o polemică, o competiție cu valul discursivității autoreflexive provocat de deschiderea supapelor tehnologiei informației. Jurnalistul – mereu în postura lui Altul (nici măcar a celuilalt) în această potențială confruntare – nu se va putea face niciodată auzit, ascultat, înțeles, urmat de un ego prins în contemplația sinelui. De aceea, ținta profesională poate fi reconsiderarea proximității. Viteza informației a ajuns lipsită de funcționalitate. Volumul informațional a ajuns în același stadiu al inoperabilității. Viteza informației,

accesibilitatea informației nu impune sub nicio formă vreo implinire pragmatică, după cum arăta tranșant și Barbie Zelizer: „the broad brush label of crisis obscures rather than illuminates our understanding of the 'diverse set of technological, political, economic, social, occupational, moral and legal circumstances' journalism operates within today" (Zelizer 2015, 888, *apud* Firmston, 2016; Coman, 2007).

După ce a trecut vârsta mirării, a contemplării fascinate a exotismului panoramei globale, receptorul s-a reîntors asupra sinelui, asupra urgențelor personale, obosit de asumarea acestei false „responsabilități mondiale" (Wolton, 246). Didacticismul mediatic se impune a fi recalibrat în virtutea unei reconcilieri a receptorului cu sine însuși: „Tema satului global este, pe de o parte, o realitate tehnică și, pe de alta, o iluzie din punctul de vedere al conținutului informației" (Wolton, p. 271). Această proximitate maximală înseamnă un prag al drumului jurnalistului de la tribuna autoritară a exclusivității presei scrise, prin ambientul domestic până, acum, aici, în tensionalitățile identitare ale eului receptor. Jurnalismul nu mai înseamnă, așadar, o soluție de evanescență, de escapism, o pretext aristotelic accesibil. Jurnalismul intră inclusiv în zona de intervenție a artei, în zona autocunoașterii, adică, și va rămâne aici atâta timp cât receptorul va căuta și va culege o informație în funcție de urgențele sale interioare, de urgențele sale de regăsire în câmpul deschis al haoticului *anything goes for anybody*. Nu nația, nu casta, cu celălalt, ci sinele orientează receptacolul spre o informație sau alta și, mai exact, regăsirea sinelui, pentru că vacarmul autocomunicării a anulat forța individuală. Această competiție a alterităților se cere arbitrată de informația jurnalistică, dar după ce aceasta a primit girul procedural instituțional (Al-Tokhais, 2016).

În această repoziționare pe harta proximității s-ar putea identifica unul dintre atuurile oferite presei de tehnologie – în presă receptorul se redescoperă/recunoaște/regăsește pe sine. Misiunea pe care și-o asumă presa – rolul pe care și-l recunoaște potrivit cercetărilor – este stabilită prn raportare exclusivă la *Establishment* și acoperă o zonă cognitiv-socială delimitate de supraveghere și reprezentativitate. De cealaltă parte, dinspre public, dinspre receptor, de la presă se așteaptă informare în dublu timp cu educarea, dar și satisfacerea unei nemărturisite nevoi de spectacol, de *entertainment*, în ciuda delimitărilor socio-estetice. Informează și distrează, critică și reprezintă – acestea sunt polii pragmatici ai socio-situării comunicării jurnalistice. În fapt, însă, toate aceste puncte pot fi atinse și prin comunicarea personalizată, confesivă, cum am numit-o. Postările din social-media ating toate aceste prerogative – educă, distrează, informează, monitorizează, chiar cu un plus de credibilitate, prin asumarea la nivel individual a comunicării, prin abandonul oricărei suspiciuni de subordonare mai mult sau mai puțin vizibilă și asumată.

Studiu de caz. Vulnerabilități sesizate de Raportul FreeEx

Presa trebuie să-și recâștige credibilitatea și autoritatea, respectiv să evolueze mult sub aspectul culturii antreprenoriale. Importanța, valoarea

informației de presă este subminată de această incultură antreprenorială, care lasă loc finanțărilor obscure, incontrolabile, respectiv suspiciunilor și respingerilor fără discernământ. „Vestea bună" este că și discursurile din social-media sunt atacate de decredibilizare. De pildă, Raportul FreeEx pe 2014-2015 înregistrează (p. 15) informații despre un referat al procurorilor în dosarul „Gala Bute" unde se vorbește despre plata unor persoane pentru a posta pe internet anume informații, în favoarea unui partid politic. Informația rămâne la statutul de acuzație, suficient, însă, pentru a pune sub semnul întrebării orice formă de partizanat explicit.

Acest paradox al presei, lipsa de transparență a modalității de finanțare) are ca primă consecință slăbirea statutului jurnalistului în proximitatea politicului. Directă consecință este dominarea extrem de agresivă a politicului și sursă esențială de decredibilizare discursivă. Raportul FreeEx vorbește despre „harta politică a televiziunilor locale", ca o reiterare a studiului omonim realizat în ianuarie 2014 de ActiveWatch. Dar noi descoperim aici un alt status quo al presei românești, anume statutul de ecou al presei locale față cu cea națională. Arată raportul:

„În numeroase situații, televiziunile locale sunt arme de luptă politică, cel mai adesea sponsorizate din bani publici (...) aproape jumătate dintre cele 56 de televiziuni incluse în cercetare sunt influențate direct sau indirect de politicieni. Mai mult, aproape jumătate dintre aceste televiziuni au putut fi documentate ca fiind beneficiare directe ale sponsorizărilor din bani publici, dar, cel mai probabil, numărul acestora este mult mai mare" (p.19).

Fără îndoială, și presa cu difuzare națională este „armă" și în mâinile politicienilor. Starea aceasta a vulnerabilității, a dependenței financiare (de fapt) a modificat statutul presei, naționale sau locale și a modificat inclusiv stilistica, atât în presa scrisă, cât și în audiovizual – dramatizarea excesivă, conflictul exacerbat, reinterpretările și forțările semantice sunt tehnici de atragere și menținere a atenție. Uimirea și panica sunt stările de spirit care alimentează un public autodefinit ca bombardat cu informație, în fapt, sedus de tehnici de spectacol. Așadar, un posibil efect al nevoii de dominație al vacarmului din virtual poate fi chiar depășirea acestei relații fractalice dintre sumarul național și cel local. În prezent, presa locală de obicei preia temele presei naționale eventual cu un minim efort de adaptare la proximitatea spațială. Chiar și la nivelul expresiei, jurnalistul local se arată destul de blazat, incapabil să-și abandoneze inerțiile și să inoveze. Proximitatea negativă, generatoare de teamă, susținută, desigur, de incultura societății civile cu privire la rostul libertății de expresie și la nevoia de presă liberă, este un alt argument (inexistent, în principiu, la nivelul presei naționale) pentru o presă previzibilă, prudentă. Aceste maladii mediatice sunt atât de profunde încât îi deturnează pe jurnaliști de la masa tehnică a informării, către masa tehnică a propagandei. Documentarea extrem de ezitantă, lipsa culturii profesionale sunt surse de materiale cu erori materiale care nu fac decât să mărească distanța dintre aparenta onestitate a unei postări personale și o postare instituțională.

Previzibilitatea și prudența, respectiv eroarea și calomnia sunt perechi de paradoxuri care completează tabloul maladiilor mediatice, țesut pe pânza dependenței economice, respectiv a inculturii antreprenoriale. Identificăm aici un alt paradox: dependența publicului de informație și vulnerabilitatea financiară a presei, căreia managementul mediatic îi răspunde de obicei prin tabloidizare și prin compromis profesional.

Concluzii

Alegerile prezidențiale din 2014 – dar și alte evenimente, precum cutremurul din 24 septembrie 2016 – au arătat superioritatea la nivelul vitezei de reacție a mediilor personalizate de comunicare, în detrimentul celor instituționale. În primul exemplu, rețelele de socializare au adus în atenția publicului imagini de la secțiile de vot din străinătate, semnalând problemele de logistică. În al doilea exemplu, petrecut în miez de noapte, evenimentul nu a găsit pus la punct în redacții niciun fel de protocol pentru astfel de situații. În ambele cazuri, însă, după ce a aflat evenimentul, publicul s-a orientat către instituțiile media pentru a primi detalii, contextualizări, explicații, informații la care numai jurnalistul – prin natura profesiei sale – ar avea acces. În ambele situații, după valul de informații la eveniment, a venit replica dezamăgirii față de lipsa de reacție, de promptitudine a presei. În concluzie, presa este chemată să traverseze această nouă etapă tranzitorie, să iasă din inerție și să descopere oportunitățile lumii virtuale – care pune la dispoziție instrumente de documentare, de prezentare, de informare, dar nu și de interpretare, respectiv de înțelegere.

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DISEASE METAPHORS IN JOURNALISTIC DISCOURSE

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Abstract

Drawing on journalistic texts that make use of illness as metaphor for troublesome social, cultural, political, ethnic, religious phenomena which call for drastic measures, this paper aims to analyze and classify metaphors and images that frame the perception and experience of serious social issues, poverty, political, ethnic crisis and so on in terms of disease.

Not only do we examine the main aspects of figurative language associated with illness and disease used by journalists in media discourse, but we also rely upon an approach based on conceptual metaphor theory when we analyze and classify conceptual metaphors related to illness. We will illustrate the identified categories by examples taken from a corpus of excerpts of journalistic discourse.

Our main objective is defined by the organization of conceptualizations of social, political, cultural issues into several categories of cognitive metaphors related to disease, applying the model of analysis developed in the research by Lakoff and Johnson (1980).

Keywords: cognitive metaphors, cognitive-semantic approach, disease, illness metaphors, journalistic discourse.

1. Introduction

As a prominent feature of journalistic discourse, metaphor performs a major function: it helps journalists render complex issues understandable to the readers and to the public. We thus become aware that we cannot locate metaphor anymore only in the poetic domain, since modern approaches to discourse analysis conceive metaphor as prevalent element in our everyday life, as locus of thought that can be dealt with and detailed cognitively, all the more so as metaphor is "a […] conventional way of conceptualizing the world" (Lakoff, 1992: 203).

The cognitive conceptualization of metaphor by Lakoff and Johnson is based on the assumption that metaphors are not mere poetic devices or matters of poetry, but cognitive structures that can be identified at a level "foregoing their manifestation in language" (Faur, 2004: 340-341).

Cognitive linguists and discourse analysts and specialists acknowledge that metaphors perform an important role in thought and in the structuring of our perception and comprehension of reality and of social, cultural issues.

Disease metaphors have drawn considerable attention in the past few years. Linguists and semanticists have revealed how extensively metaphors and images of diverse diseases in a specific culture shape and mould the representation,

experience and perception of social convulsions and economic, political, cultural or ethnic issues. An essential catalyst for research in this direction originated in Sontag's (1978; 1989) work on *Illness as Metaphor*. As a real cancer sufferer, Sontag contended against the pervasive use of disease metaphors in writing about tumours and other terminal illnesses as well as on their impact on the representation and perception of disease in Western European society. Even though her study is nothing but a heartfelt appeal to elude the use of figurative language when tackling diseases in a journal's column or article – "[…] illness is not a metaphor, and the most truthful way of regarding illness […] is one of the most resistant to metaphorical thinking" (Sontag, 1999: 3) – it encouraged further scientific investigation into two types of disease metaphors, depending on whether the metaphor serves as target domain or as source domain. Thus, the initial studies on the power of disease metaphors have remained a benchmark on the way towards a more intricate and complex comprehension of illness, not only by historians or anthropologists, but also by linguists and journalists.

The understanding of everyday language as place of manifestation of the metaphor allowed and favoured the study of illness metaphor concentrated nowadays on specialty languages: medical language, economic language, language of diplomacy on crisis or journalistic language.

The corpus used for the study of sickness metaphorical language used in journalistic discourse is tackled from the perspective of conceptual metaphor theory. We will identify typologies and examine categories of conceptual metaphors related to social, political, cultural affections. We aim to comprehend how these social, cultural, political issues are described metaphorically and we intend to illustrate the identified categories by examples taken from a corpus of excerpts of modern journalistic discourse. It is almost inconceivable nowadays to speak or write about illness (affecting the physical body or the social body) and explain suffering without recurring to metaphors (Țenescu, 2012: 135).

Not only have medical scientists and psychologists recognized metaphors as an essential source of meaning for the sick, for the patients and their relatives in their efforts to cope with and grasp the sense of a terminal or dangerous disease, but other professions, such as journalists, have made use of medical metaphors to illustrate and explain afflictions on the social, political body or to render striking images of social, economic and cultural afflictions. These peculiar metaphors tend to render more tangible, – by an implied comparison with something that is closer to one's ordinary experience (one's physical experience of pain or disease) – that which is not easily understood or difficult to seize and grasp by the senses (pain, sicknesses of the social body).

Stolberg (2004: 5) argues that disease metaphors are not to be analyzed isolatedly, but on the contrary, they must be understood as "parts of culturally or historically specific wider webs of meanings" […] if we were to "use a term borrowed from cultural anthropology".

2. Disease metaphors in journalistic discourse

Dealing with the issue of perception and description of suffering inflicted on the social or economic body as it is reflected in journalistic discourse favours an orientation of research by several approaches of the semantics of disease/suffering and pain: the identification of essential aspects of disease imagery in our research corpus, an examination of perceptions and representations of disease and suffering in media discourse and a recognition of the main categories of conceptual metaphors associated with sickness and disease.

If authors and researchers such as Sontag (1989, 1999), Tompkins and Lawley (2012), Fiumara (1995), Wilberg (2012) and Broom (2007) have indicated that illness metaphors are pervasive in medical discourse and not only, they also insisted on explaining why illness metaphor represents a natural way to describe disease and health issues and they emphasized the importance of recognizing patients' or suffering individuals' (or social body's) metaphors, and showed how using and working within and with these metaphors can trigger an individual's or social body's healing process.

In analyzing and discriminating disease metaphors, we first discern two types of sickness metaphors, depending on whether illness serves as "source domain" or as "target domain" (Rijn-van Tongeren, 1997: 12). If disease acts as "vehicle" or "source domain", the illness and its features constitute a metaphor for non-medical phenomena, which is the common case in our corpus of study. For example, crisis can be reflected as a "disease" of post-modern society. With the second type, metaphors borrowed from non-medical contexts are employed in order to render the characteristic features of a peculiar sickness.

In the current study, our data sources are represented by excerpts of journalistic discourses in English conceived during 1999-2013 whose target-public is represented by the readers of the *New York Times*.

A current metaphor found in the columns of the *New York Times* is POVERTY IS A DISEASE and COMMON PHYSICAL AFFLICTION. This metaphor is, in fact, a source subcase of the metaphor Poverty is physical harm and its cognitive mapping serves to decode the frame of poverty such as follows: for poverty to express itself as dearth, as lack of an amount of material possessions, there must be an impoverished entity (in the example below, the child) and an impoverished state (the toxic stress, leading to stress-related disease and possibly, to cognitive impairment):

(1) "Toxic stress is the *heavy hand* of early poverty, scripting a child's life not in the Horatio Alger scenario of determination and drive, but in the patterns of disappointment and deprivation that shape a life of limitations." (*NYT*, 2013)

The metaphor's source frame is a disease while the target frame is poverty and the related metaphor is in this example SOCIAL ISSUES ARE ILLNESSES

which includes as subcase the metaphor Poverty is physical harm. What is particularly striking in the example above is that health metaphor is paralleled by the organicist metaphor POVERTY IS A HUMAN BEING. The medical metaphor is not the only one used to talk about social issues, as Fairclough (1989: 122) asserted. Not only disease metaphors, but also organicist metaphors are employed to portray the negative impact of poverty on a child's health and life. As a living being, with its own will and force, poverty lays a heavy hand on the poor child's body, causing him toxic stress, which is, in its turn, a symptom of "disappointment and deprivation" shaping "a life of limitations".

Not only are health metaphors drawn upon to speak about social problems such as poverty, but they are also utilized to portray situations of social convulsions or unrest, as attacks on a healthy society's body or on the health of the society as a whole:

(2) "The rioting and looting that *convulsed* poorer sections of London over the weekend spread Monday to at least eight new districts in the metropolitan area and broke out for the first time in Britain's second-largest city, Birmingham, in what was developing into the worst outbreak of social unrest in Britain in 25 years." (*NYT*, 2011)

In example (2), the frame of the metaphor RIOT IS SICKNESS is displayed as a medical condition characterized by the urban body's rapid and repeated muscle contraction and relaxation, resulting in an uncontrolled shaking of the English social-urban body. Since the social convulsion is a symptom of seizure (epilectic or non-epilectic, the urban body's convulsion resembles to a stroke. When the urban organisms (London and Birmingham) are suffering from a convulsion in their poorer areas, they experience several symptoms: social confusion and unrest, loss of control, abrupt shaking of the entire public body, uncontrollable metropolitan spasms and so on. As this peculiar convulsion is caused by an electrical activity accident in the British community's brain, its symptoms initially last for one or two days and then extend for another week in other parts of the urban body ("eight new districts in the metropolitan area") to finally reflect the "worst outbreak" of a social disease that hasn't harmed Britain for more than a quarter of a century. The basic meaning of this disease metaphor is that it construes an expression of riot and looting as eroding, undermining and weakening the health of English society.

The third example in our corpus of study reflects the way we talk about illness in terms of war and cleansing and shows how an army thinks that, in its fight to eliminate a disease from the societal body, it bombards and shells "civilian populations" and leads a chemical warfare for "ethnic cleansing".

(3) "Investigators at the international war crimes tribunal in The Hague have concluded that the Croatian Army carried out summary executions, indiscriminate shelling of civilian

> populations and ethnic cleansing during a 1995 assault that was a turning point in the Balkan wars, according to tribunal documents." (*NYT*, 1999)

The social body cleansing represents for the army a natural way to eliminate a real or imagined disease. Removing disease with deep societal body cleansing is unparalleled, as unprecedented military operations carried out by the Croatian Army doubled by assaults and "summary executions" are considered hygienic, and portrayed as means to clean out the community's body ethnically.

Conclusion

The current corpus analysis accentuates the lexical richness of health and disease imagery in English journalistic discourse and raises the awareness as to the metaphoric configuration of social issues which highlights the high frequency and centrality of the illness metaphor and of the organicist metaphor. Peculiar mental images of social problems such as that of poverty of physical affliction, of riot as convulsion caused by a social-urban body's seizure and the use of the military metaphor together with the disease metaphor in order to illustrate ethnic cleansing in a country reveal the intricate conceptualization of social issues in medical terms. Journalistic discourse in English provides a rich corpus and a wide array of examples reflecting the richness of the metaphorical thought built around the conceptualization of social and ethnical problems nowadays.

Corpus

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FOSTERING CREATIVITY AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS THROUGH PROJECT WORK

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Abstract

One of the important desiderata of tertiary level engineering education is the correlation between the technical and the humanistic components. From among the activities that can create a bridge between these two components, while also fostering the students' cooperation, creativity and research skills is project work. In the foreign language class, project work is perceived as a complex activity that involves the skills of reading, speaking, listening and writing, at the end of which a certain 'product' is obtained: a leaflet, a brochure, a newspaper article, a report, a poster, a video clip, a series of slides, a real technical device.

The advantages of cooperative projects in the foreign language class are many and have been highlighted in the literature: they help students learn and foster their creativity, autonomy and responsibility; projects combine work in class with research and surveys performed in the 'real world', thus replicating genuine investigation processes; since learners work in groups, this activity contributes to the creation and development of a team spirit; such activities reduce the students' anxiety associated with communicating their ideas in the foreign language to an audience, thus contributing to the development of their public speaking skills.

This paper will present an overview of the literature on the use of project work in the English classroom and will share the author's experience regarding the implementation of projects in the English seminar, focusing on the steps followed.

Keywords: project work, oral communication skills, creativity, autonomy, team spirit.

Introduction

One of the important aims of the English syllabus is the development of the students' ability to participate in international social and professional interactions. This aim is in accordance with the demands of the present-day world, in which ability to work in multi-national teams has become a must. To communicate with their fellow professionals all over the world, the graduates of tomorrow need to use an international language, such as English, both in social and professional interactions. Therefore, it is very important to develop our students' general communication skills and particularly their speaking skills and

to create a climate in which they can cooperate, generate, share, defend and test their ideas, take responsibility, develop research skills, create various end 'products'. One way of doing this, experimented in some of my classes is the introduction of cooperative projects.

The idea of using project work in the foreign English class in our universities emerged in the mid 1990's during one of the meetings of the materials coordinators as part of PROSPER (Project for Special Purpose English in Romania), a project that involved several (technical and business) applied English departments in Romanian universities under the coordination of the British Council.

During that meeting it was decided to introduce project work as a complex, integrated-skills activity, involving reading, speaking, listening and writing. From a pedagogic point of view, this type of activity refers to a modality of learning and research through practical action, the purpose of which is the creation and presentation of a theme-project: a leaflet, a brochure, a newspaper article, a report, a poster, a video clip, a series of slides, a real technical device.

Why Project Work?

Foreign language projects can come in different forms: a) information and research projects;
b) survey projects; c) production projects; d) performance projects. Irrespective of their type, projects in the foreign language class come with a series of advantages over other activities, which have been pointed out by many authors, either in a theoretical, sometimes even prescriptive manner, or in a practical way, starting from one's own experience (Fried-Booth 1986; Olsen & Kagan 1992; Papandreou 1994; Sheppard & Stroller 1995; Iftimie 2007):

1. *Project work helps students learn*. While gathering data for the project, students need to gather and find out information or data they did not know before from printed or electronic sources, from their teachers or from peers. At the same time, each project is required to bring some degree of novelty to the audience; therefore, projects will contribute to the overall learning process.
2. *Projects increase the students' autonomy and responsibility.* The students work for their projects both in and out-of-class, but the main weight falls on their out-of-class work. This means that they take the main responsibility for deciding on the final 'product', for gathering information, deciding on the manner in which they introduce and conclude their presentation, the visual aids (realia, slides, poster, leaflet, etc.).
3. *Projects foster the students' creativity.* Such projects offer them the opportunity to put their talents to work. This is especially true in the last two types of projects presented above, i.e. production and performance projects: production projects have an original end product (an electronic device, the scale model of a building, a brochure. a newspaper page, a

technical advertisement), which is the tangible result of the students' ingenuity and creativity; performance projects are finalized through the presentation of a brief show by the group members, in the course of which they display their creativity and artistic talent. Even the first two types – research and survey projects – foster the students' creativity because the presentation of their project is accompanied by a visual – slides, a poster – which is the result of their creativity.

4. *Project work increases the students' motivation and their involvement*. If students are free to choose the topic of their project out of several broad areas, they will be motivated to pursue their special interests, tackle a puzzling area or satisfy a curiosity; as such, they will be more involved in what they are doing. This is different from the usual classroom activities, which are established by the teacher and/or the course book used.
5. *Projects contribute to the creation of a team spirit.* Most projects in the foreign language class are cooperative projects, i.e. they are carried out in teams of 2-4 students. By working
   in teams, students establish and/or develop interpersonal relations with other group members.
6. *Project work is more authentic than other tasks.* In order to carry out their project, students go out into the world to make surveys or gather information which is analyzed, evaluated by all the team members and is finally presented to an audience. In case the end result is a technical device, the main features of the 'prototype' are presented to a knowledgeable public (other students), entitled to ask questions about the parameters or the functioning of that particular device and about its originality.
7. *Projects offer a break from the usual classroom routine.* Each step in the unfolding of such projects brings something new and unexpected for the participants.
8. *Project work is a challenging activity.* Students generally dislike routine and like to be challenged. If the topic chosen is in conformity with the students' interest, they will try to do their best to successfully complete the task.
9. *Projects develop the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening*. In the first three types of projects, students need to gather, read and select information from printed or electronic sources. Then they need to write an outline of their presentation and create their visual aids. During the presentation of their project, they speak, listen to their peers' questions or comments and answer them. The only exception is represented by performance projects, in which the skills developed are speaking and listening.
10. *Project work reduces the students' anxiety related to communicating*

their ideas in front of a class and develops their public speaking skills. Since all group members participate in the project, each knows what the project is about. Part of the teacher's task is to raise the students' awareness on various delivery styles and train them on effective public speaking techniques. Moreover, since they are supposed to rehearse the presentation, before they actually deliver it to an audience, the students feel much more secure and less threatened by stage fright. They can then transfer these presentation techniques onto other oral presentations, be they in Romanian or in a foreign language.

While preparing their projects and oral presentations, the learners develop a number of skills, such as:

1. *Research skills*. The information presented in projects needs to be accurate, and this involves doing some research. This may be done in various ways: browsing through the materials that can be found in the library – reference materials, periodicals, books –, surfing the internet for sources of information, using firsthand observation. Students may also need to devise research instruments (questionnaires or interview questions) and sometimes statistical methods for analyzing and interpreting results.
2. *Organizational skills.* After gathering information, the students need to arrange the material they want to present in a clear and coherent manner, using the traditional tripartite structure (introduction, body and conclusion). They also need to decide about the order in which they deliver the presentation (who is going to speak about what and in which order). In this way, they acquire and/or develop organizational skills, which are very important for the success of any project and also for their professional career.
3. *Interpersonal skills.* These skills are developed through working in a team and cooperating with the other team members in order to carry out the project. Cooperation means dividing responsibilities, sharing ideas, accepting criticism and contrary opinions, having a flexible mind, making the transition from 'mine' to 'ours'. As shown by Iftimie, the "success or failure of a group project depends to a great extent upon the cooperation and coordination level within the team and upon the individual preparation and effort of each participant" (2007: 277).
4. *Communication skills.* Presenting one's project in a clear and attractive manner involves effective public speaking techniques. Such techniques refer to verbal, paraverbal (volume of voice, speed, pitch, clarity of pronunciation, energy level) and nonverbal elements (eye contact, posture, facial expression, gestures). While planning and practicing their presentations, the learners develop the ability to speak to an audience in a clear, coherent, attractive and enthusiastic manner.

The Context

I am currently teaching students from the Faculty of Electronics, Telecommunications and Information Technology from Iași Technical University. All freshmen and sophomore students in this faculty study English as a compulsory subject, for one or two hours a week, depending on the semester. They are divided into two levels of proficiency: advanced (ranging in fact from intermediate to advanced) and beginners (ranging from real beginners to lower intermediate). Project work has been introduced to sophomore students as part of their assessment for the second semester, in the course of which we meet for the English seminar every other week, on Wednesday afternoon. Many students have had no experience in doing project work and/or in delivering oral presentations during the foreign language class. That is why I take a step-by-step approach in teaching them how develop projects, as well as how to plan, organize, prepare and deliver the oral presentations by means of which they present the projects.

As pointed out above, delivering a presentation to an audience presupposes communication on three planes: verbal, paraverbal and non-verbal. Therefore, when teaching our students how to develop projects and make efficient oral presentations we need to take into account all the factors concerning preliminary search strategy, generating ideas, planning content, organizing information, developing the project, delivering a presentation, using appropriate language functions and exponents, using visual aids.

Opinions and recommendations regarding the number and the sequencing of steps involved in developing projects differ in the literature (cf. Fried-Booth 1986; Haines: 1989; Dumanova: 1993; Sheppard & Stroller 1995; Iftimie: 2013), depending on the context in which it is implemented. In what follows I shall present the steps followed and the procedure applied in developing projects at "Gheorghe Asachi" University in Iași.

The Process: Stages in Project Development

Providing a stimulus

This stage is one of the most important in setting up a project: if the initial idea is given by the teacher at the right time in a convincing manner, it will gear lots of other ideas in the unfolding of project work. Without sounding patronizing, it is clear that our persuasive ability depends in fact on how much we, as teachers, believe in the advantages of project work.

This stage involves several aspects:

a) *Introducing the concept of project work and oral presentation*. This is done starting from the learners' previous experience: the students discuss in small groups about their previous experience (if any) in developing projects and/or in making oral presentations in English or Romanian. During their discussion, they are required to cover the following aspects:

type of project, topic, subject matter, type of end product, number of students per group, type of presentation (Power Point presentation, a written report that was read aloud, etc), audience, the pleasures and pains of such an endeavour. Each group is then invited to name a spokesperson who will present a brief report of the group's experience in making project work. This is followed by a class discussion on the short and long term benefits of developing communication skills through project work.

b) *Number of students per group.* This number (2-4 students) is given by the teacher, but the students themselves can choose their partners.
c) *Amount of time.* Each project presentation should be limited to 10 minutes.
d) *Type of project.* Students can choose from among: information and research projects, survey projects or production projects. Performance projects are no longer included in the second semester because, for about three years now, they have been materialized towards the end of the first semester in a short Christmas play interpreted by a group of students who are part of the Electronics English Club.
e) *Type of end product.* Depending on the project type, the end product may be an electronic or electrical device, a scale model, a brochure, a questionnaire-based survey, a series of slides, a poster.
f) *Timescale.* At the end of each seminar, 15-20 minutes are allotted to project work. A whole seminar is allotted for the presentation of projects. In-class activity is correlated with work out-of-class, which represents, in fact the greatest bulk of project-devoted work.
g) *Assessment procedure.* Each project presentation is assessed by the teacher and a committee of students from a different year of study. The students in the audience will also have a say: they can ask questions or make comments that will be taken into account in the evaluation of projects.
h) *Assessment criteria.* The assessment criteria include the end product and the oral presentation as such: delivery, content, organization, language (accuracy and fluency), visual material, integration of the visual with the presentation as such. If for the end product and the visual all the students in one team will get the same grade, the elements which refer to the oral presentation may be graded differently for different students belonging to one and the same group).
i) *Themes.* During this initial stage, learners are also suggested a choice of possible themes: *Electronic Product Presentation; The City of the Future (Underwater City Project; Outer Space City Project);The Car of the Future; Student Life (Life in the Hostel; Sports Practiced by Students; Students' Shopping Habits; Students' Food Habits).* They can choose other themes, as well. A major requirement for each project is novelty, which means that mere compilations from various sources are not welcome.

The 'incubation' period

The initial stage is followed by a period of 'incubation'of two weeks (until the next seminar), during which the learners form their groups and decide on the topic of their project. From my experience, I believe that this is the optimum interval: if the thinking period is longer, students tend to forget about the need to take this decision in due time. During this period they can also note down any queries they have regarding various aspects of project work.

Identifying the theme and topic

The 'incubation' period proves to be fruitful for the students: the freedom of choice of the topic increaseas the learners' motivation and creates a feeling of 'ownership', which makes the students in each group become more involved and committed to carrying out this task.

From the point of view of the type, the students' projects fall under the three categories mentioned above: a) information and research projects; b) survey projects; c) production projects. Within each type, the main themes identified are:

a) Information and research projects: *Car of the Future (Hybrid and Electric Vehicles, Electric Smart Car, Car Technologies, Self-Driving Cars); City of the Future (Architecture in the city of the Future, The House of the Future, Transport in the city of the Future); Energy (Solar Power, Wind Power); Technological Advances (Upcoming Technologies, Innovative Technology, The Future of Electronics, Wireless Power Transfer, Quantum Computing);*
b) Survey projects: *Student Life (Students and Jobs; Students in My Town/Students in Another Town; Students Today and before 1989);*
c) Production Projects: *Product Design and Presentation* (*Electronic Devices, Automatic Temperature Control System).*

The existence of different types of projects and different themes in one and the same English class renders the teacher's task more challenging, both as a consultant and as an evaluator. However, the similarity of the project presentation framework (an oral presentation supported by slides), as well as the existence of a clear set of evaluation criteria are meant to help the teacher overcome such difficulties.

Organizing project work

The next step consists in making an action plan: the members of each team identify the problems they have to solve in order to reach the desired outcome. As such, they decide upon:

a) steps to be taken;
b) ways of collecting information (library search, the Internet, discussions with specialized subject teachers, interviews, questionnaires);
c) the role of each group member;
d) an agreed time frame (corroborated with the one given by the teacher).

The teacher's role at this stage is that of an organizer, consultant and monitor: she supervises the students' activity and offeres them advice and information

when necessary. Once the students have agreed upon the instruments for collecting data, they start devising them with the help of the teacher (questionnaires, interview questions, tables, grids, charts).

Gathering information

In order to collect data for their projects, the students are 'sent out into the world': they go to the library, various institutions, speak with subject teachers, employers, graduates or colleagues or surf the Internet. Information is gathered both in class – the teacher and the students bring books, magazine or newspaper articles, technical advertisements – and out-of-class, the main weight falling on the out-of-class activity, performed by students in their spare time.

Determining subject, purpose and audience

The students are presented the three important elements of any oral or written text, reunited under the acronym SPA (subject, purpose and audience). In other words, the learners are advised to select and limit their subject, identify their purpose and analyze their audience (Iftimie, N. M., & Chang, Wan-lih 2008). When the subject is not imposed in advance (the case presented in this article), it should fall into the speakers' area of expertise, be interesting for the potential listeners and should be covered in the given amount of time (10 minutes). The purpose of any presentation, either oral or written may be that of informing, persuading, entertaining, or a combination of these. In the case of technical or scientific presentations, the main purpose is generally that of informing; however, even in such presentations, persuading and/or entertaining can appear as related purposes. In order to make my students better understand these purposes, I ask them to read some fragments of oral presentations, decide which purpose/purposes is/are displayed by each fragment and give reasons for their decision. The third element, the audience, is generally neglected by teachers because in the case of school or university projects the audience is generally representad by the teachers themselves and by students. In real life, however, the audience becomes an extremely important element each speaker should take into account and adjust his/her presentation accordingly. The audience characteristics will influence our choice of subject, the vocabulary we use, the amount of technical information, the examples and details meant to prove a point. That is why I always ask the learners to take into account the characteristics of the audience and draw the listeners' profile in terms of age range, gender, nationality, education level, occupation, technical background, level of English, number, seating arrangements. After having agreed on their audience's profile, the students work in groups to devise a list of project topics that might be suitable for an oral presentation delivered to their class, including the topic they have already chosen. Then they swap their lists with another group and evaluate their peers' topics against the framework provided by the audience profile. If the topic they have thought of is considered unsuitable by the peers, it will be reformulated.

Organizing the presentation

The next step consists in planning and organizing the project and the oral presentation according to the three part structure: introduction, body and conclusion. For each part sample texts are used, discussed and analyzed in terms of functions, specific techniques and language patterns. Taking into account the fact that in order to get the listeners' attention and create common ground it is necessary to build what may be called a 'strong' introduction, students are offered some tips on how to introduce their presentation by using various attention getters – a personal story, a surprising or unusual fact, an interesting example, a quotation from an authority or expert, impressive statistics (Matthews & Marino 1990: 6). The conclusion is also very important and should leave a strong impression on the audience. Therefore, I recommend my students to devise a conclusion that could reinforce the main ideas, while at the same time giving the audience some 'food for thought' by asking a puzzling question that might be answered to in a follow-up presentation, by inviting the listeners to reflect on the past and speculate about the future, or by inviting the audience to take a course of action (in the case of topics dealing with environmental issues). As practical activity, the students read several opening and ending passages of oral presentations and decide which technique is used in each fragment. In what concerns the central part of any presentation, the body, starting from the ideas presented by Matthews and Marino, I give the students examples that display different patterns of organizing information: *topical order* (classification); *chronological order* (giving instructions, explaining a procedure); *spatial order* (describing a building, describing an object); *problem-solution* (describing the problem, giving solutions) *cause-effect* (explaining causes, explaining effects); *reasons for and against*; *comparison/contrast* (1990:101-105). At this point, I also introduce the specific language functions and corresponding exponents. In order to facilitate the students' intake, two types of tasks are used: one is a matching activity – the learners have a list of topics and match them to the appropriate pattern of organization; in the other task the students are given several large subject areas and are asked to work in groups and develop each subject into two different topics, each with a clear central idea and a different pattern of organization.

Preparing the presentation

In order to prepare and rehearse their oral presentation, the students are first presented the various types of presentations (manuscript, memorized, impromptu, and extemporaneous) by means of short video clips. While watching the short video exemplifications, the learners are invited to note down the characteristics of each style of delivery, and make comments on possible advantages and disadvantages. The notes made by the students represent the basis for a comparison of the various formats and a discussion about their pluses and minuses, starting from criteria such as preparation time, natural delivery, eye contact, keeping the audience's interest. After comparing the characteristics of

each style, the students become aware of the effectiveness of extemporaneous presentations, which are carefully planned and well organized, but not learned by heart. Among the advantages of such presentations, mention can be made of the following: natural, conversational delivery; eye contact with the audience; the potential of permanent feedback from the listeners; the possibility to adjust one's presentation according to this feedback.

The same session is devoted to the presentation of the other elements involved in oral presentations that can convey meaning and reveal one's emotions and attitude: paraverbal elements (volume of voice, pitch, clarity, speed of delivery) and nonverbal elements (posture, facial expressions, gestures, eye contact). Some short videos are used to show the students that paraverbal and nonverbal elements can be very helpful in making an effective delivery, or, if misused, can damage a whole presentation. After watching the video clips, the students are required to write some guidelines or instructions for effective delivery. This is followed by a class discussion during which a common list of guidelines is agreed upon. The students are then asked to work in small groups of four or five and deliver a two-minute presentation on a topic of their choice. Their presentation is discussed and evaluated by the other group members on the basis of the list of guidelines. The rationale for this activity is that it allows the learners to put to practice what they have just been taught about effective delivery in a non-threatening, friendly environment.

The final touch

There is an element that has not been yet spoken about: the visual aid. In the case of the projects made by the engineering students from our university, the visual aids are represented by slides (Power Point presentation), by a poster and/or by realia. The role of the visual is to reinforce, complete, clarify and make more interesting and pleasant the information presented in speech. Some recent studies show that an audience generally takes in less than 25% of what a speaker says. Visual aids can increase the rate of the listeners' intake and comprehension.

This does not mean, however, that we should use visuals for their own sake. I always tell my students that visuals have to have a purpose, and that their purpose is not to repeat the speakers' words. if the slides, for example, include the very words the speakers are uttering, it means that either the speakers or the slides are redundant. The visual material needs to be integrated naturally in the presentation so as to help the speakers make their points clear.

The final step of the project preparation consists in devising an evaluation checklist with the help of the students themselves. In broad lines, the list includes the following: novelty of end product, delivery, content and organization, language (accuracy and fluency), visual aids. All these aspects are graded from 1(unsatisfactory) to 5 (excellent).

Students are advised to rehearse their project presentations, both individually and as a team. While doing this, they should take into account both

the vocal and the visual elements. In order to cover all aspects, students can take a step-by- step approach: first rehearse what they are going to say, then how they are going to say it and finally combine both aspects. If a video camera is not available, students are advised to use a tape recorder and to rehearse their presentation in front of an "objective eye" or at least in front of the mirror. The aspects that should be taken into account are the following: language (correct and fluent); voice (volume, speed, pitch, clarity, energy level/enthusiasm, sloppy speech habits); body language (posture, facial expressions, gestures, eye contact).

Conclusion

The paper has focused on the fostering of creativity and communication skills through project work. It discussed the benefits of project work as presented in the literature and the skills developed by this complex activity. The author then focused on a specific context and shared her experience regarding the implementation of project work in a task-based, step-by-step approach. The philosophy that underpins this approach is that project work is a multi-faceted activity that develops the learners' research, interpersonal, organizational and communication skills, while also fostering their creativity in a friendly, collaborative environment.

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MEDIA, POLITICS AND CINEMATOGRAPHY: BOB WOODWARD, CARL BERNSTEIN, DAVID FROST AND THE WATERGATE AFFAIR ON THE BIG SCREEN

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Abstract

The relation between media and politics has always been complex and sometimes controversial, but one of the most important duties of the press still remains the mission to identify and report the inconsistencies, deceptions, manipulations and the illegal acts carried out by the political power. In the 1970's, two iconic moments that redefined the relation between journalists and politicians in the USA took place, both of them related to one of the most infamous scandals in which a president of the United States was involved: the Watergate Scandal. First of all, the landmark journalistic investigation conducted by The Washington Post reporters Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein triggered by a break-in at the Democratic National Committee headquarters at the Watergate office complex in Washington and the President Richard Nixon's administration's attempted cover-up of its involvement. Secondly, the series of interviews of Richard Nixon conducted by the British journalist David Frost, a journalistic endeavor that presumably led to a first admission of guilt from the former U.S. President. Therefore, this paper focuses on the extraordinary events related to what was called the Watergate Affair or the Watergate Scandal (1972), on one hand, and to the so-called Nixon Interviews (1977), on the other hand, and the way they were depicted in two remarkable movies: Alan J. Pakula's 'All the President's Men' (1976) and Ron Howard's 'Frost/Nixon' (2008).

Keywords: journalism, cinematography, politics, Watergate

1. Journalism and Cinematography. Plus Politics

Photo: http://www.dvd.net.au

The motion picture industry, Hollywood in particular, has a long tradition of depicting real events in a very specific way that some might consider utterly distorting. And sometimes they are right, but they must accept that there are some reasons, acceptable to a certain reasonable point, related both to the artistic views and box office interests, that lead to a slight or dramatic retouching of the facts that are reenacted so that the public find the final product interesting and entertaining. It's a reality that must be taken into consideration when analyzing the feature movies inspired by historic facts and we should relate to them considerably different than to the documentary films. That is the frame in which we should engage our opinions about such a genre that is still highly popular and we must not interchange the study items and not apply the criteria from one paradigm to another.

The movies related to factual/fictional journalistic endeavors are not as many as we might presume. Of course, several motion pictures about different other topics tangentially deal with journalistic subjects. Especially the complete fictional films, but not only them, because the movies that reflect undeniable facts can take the liberty of involving a real/fictional journalist or a true/fictional journalistic investigation in their plots. Anyway, taking into consideration solely the movies that have in the spotlight exclusively the destiny of a journalist or a certain journalistic act, we can realize that the niche is rather narrow. And when films do concentrate on journalistic themes, they frequently target only the human dimension of the journalists involved, as Matthew C. Ehrlich asserts: "It is not surprising that the movies focus so heavily on the dilemmas faced by journalist heroes or villains as opposed to a more nuanced examination of journalism as an institution. As historian Robert Rosenstone puts it, <Film insists on history as the story of individuals>, the result being that <the personal becomes a way of avoiding the often difficult or insoluble social problems pointed out by the film>. So journalism movies focus on personal relationships between reporters, editors, sources, and love interests. (…) However, the movies have managed to address the press's significance precisely through their generic, formulaic nature that focuses on the personal rather than the political. Their dualistic structure - pitting reporter versus editor, reporter versus source, reporter versus love interest – speaks to journalism's conflicts and contradictions".[1]

Starting with Howard Hawkes' classic 'His Girl Friday' (1940), starring the unforgettable Cary Grant, we can add to our list some other exceptional films about journalism, totally/partially fictional or reasonably factual, such as Alexander Mackendrick's "Sweet Smell of Success" (1957), Billy Wilder's 'The Front Page' (1974), Sidney Lumet's 'Network' (1976), Roland Joffé's 'The Killing Fields', Oliver Stone's 'Salvador' (1986), Barry Levinson's 'Good Morning, Vietnam' (1987), Michael Winterbottom's 'Welcome to Sarajevo' (1997), Barry Levinson's 'Wag the Dog' (1997), Douglas McGrath's 'Infamous' (2006) and, last

[1] Ehrlich, Matthew C., *Journalism in the Movies*, University of Illinois Press, 2004, p.178

but not least, the two movies we are most interested in, namely Alan J. Pakula's 'All the President's Men' (1976) and Ron Howard's 'Frost/Nixon' (2008).

The relation between journalism and cinematography started, as we can notice, when movies began to attract larger and larger audiences, that is why we can stress that from the very start of this interconnection the public was exposed to the fact that media must be vigilant and critical when dealing with politics/politicians. The journalists must act as watchdogs of the society, they must be alert and uncompromising when finding that politicians are crossing the limits of law or breaking the moral code. Although the relation between media and politics has always been complex and not seldom controversial, one of the most important duties of the press still remains the mission to identify and report the inconsistencies, deceptions, manipulations and the illegal acts carried out by the political power, a mission frequently depicted or suggested in the films, as Berrin A. Beasley emphasizes, when reviewing Barry Levinson's 'Wag the Dog': "For decades journalists have been known as watchdogs of government, meaning it's our responsibility to watch over elected and appointed officials to ensure they're acting both legally and ethically in the public's best interest. Politicians are expected to enact the laws that govern us, spend our tax dollars in responsible ways, and sometimes even engage this country in war if the nation's safety is in jeopardy. Because the average American cannot be present physically while his or her state's legislature is in session or while Congress meets, Americans rely on the press to be there to report the daily decisions these politicians make and how those decisions influence our everyday lives. In theory, each American would watch over each elected and appointed representative, but in reality, that's just not possible, so reporters watch for us. That means journalists and their coverage of political figures are crucial to the health of our democracy because history has proven time and again that if you can control people's access to information, you can control people".[2]

That is exactly what happened in 1972, when President Richard Nixon thought that by controlling the information would get away with the fact that he at least had known about a break-in at the Democratic National Committee headquarters located in an office complex named Watergate, if not he had even orchestrated the whole operation. And Watergate was going to become a political scandal of epic magnitude due to the relentless efforts of two journalists from The Washington Post, Carl Bernstein and Bob Woodward, whose investigation led to the disclosure of a massive cover-up operation conducted by high officials from the very heart of the American government. An infamous affair that eventually led to the resignation of a president for the first and so far the last time in the history of the American democracy. And Watergate became a landmark investigation and arguably the most famous journalistic act of all times.

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[2] Beasley, Berrin A., *Political Manipulation of the Media* in *Journalism Ethics Goes to the Movies* (edited by Howard Good), Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc, Lanham, Maryland, 2008, pp. 35-36

2. Watergate. A Messy Affair Revealed

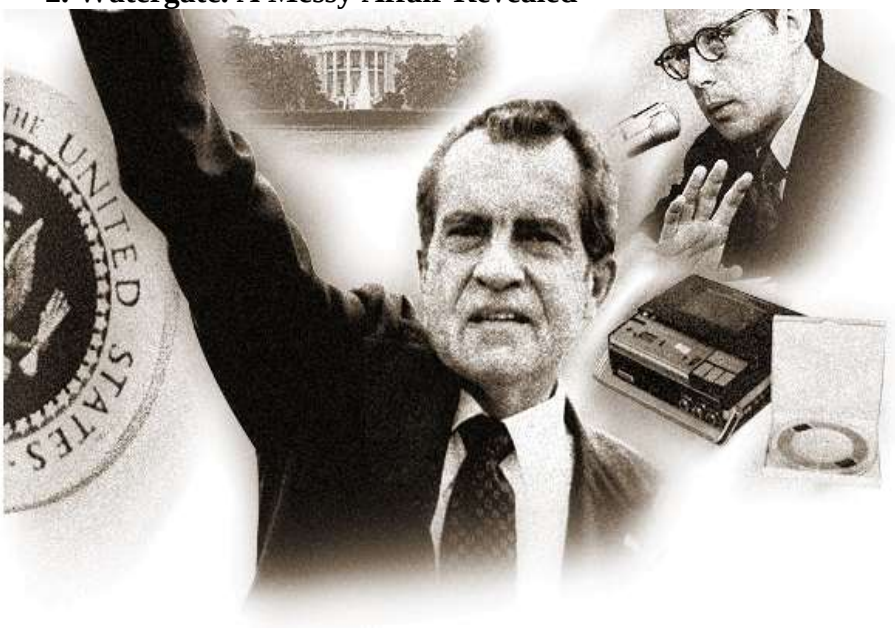

Photo: https://www.geni.com

The Watergate scandal began on the 17th of June 1972 with an incident that did not seem to have the potential to lead to the massive political earthquake that would take place not before long: five men were arrested under the charge of illegally entering into the Democratic National Committee headquarters from the Watergate complex. It's interesting that if the security guard Frank Wills had not alerted the authorities, this major scandal may never have broken out. The following inquiries unearthed facts that in the end would cause a political shake-up. Due mainly to the disclosures made after the journalistic investigation of The Washington Post reporters Carl Bernstein and Bob Woodward, everyone could notice that there was a connection between the five burglars and a secret fund presumably used for political bribery by the Committee for the Re-Election of the President. There were also reasonable suspicions that the break-in was part of a surveillance operation designed to keep a close eye on the political rivals of the President and the Republican Party.

Photo: www.henry4school.fr

Using the information revealed by a secret source nicknamed Deep Throat, Bernstein and Woodward kept on digging and their columns revealed the frightening scale of the messy affair, unveiling even the fact that President Richard Nixon had a tape-recording system in his offices used to record the conversations in the Oval Office, his office in the Old Executive Office Building, the Cabinet Room, and Camp David, in order to use the recordings to his own benefit.

The disclosures made by The Washington Post led to resignations. Trying to ease the pressure on Richard Nixon, at first two high officials of the government, H. R. Haldeman and John Ehrlichman, stepped down. But it was not enough, as the cover-up operation clearly had failed, the pressure on the head of the government kept on mounting and the affair reached the Supreme Court. After some fiery legal battles and a resolution from the Senate Watergate Committee, based even on testimonies provided by former staff members, the Supreme Court decided that the President must hand out all the tapes to the investigators, which happened soon after. The recordings (known as the White House Tapes) revealed that Richard Nixon was deeply involved in the attempted cover-up, trying to use several federal officials in order to throw the investigators on a false track.

Photo: http://www.history.com

As an impeachment in the House of Representatives and a conviction in the Senate were imminent, Nixon decided to quit office on August 9, 1974, becoming the first president in the history of the United States of America to resign. And as yet the only. In his resignation speech, Richard Nixon never admitted once to have been aware of the acts that intended to cover up the

Watergate affair and he claimed that he was well-intentioned throughout his entire mandate: "In all the decisions I have made in my public life, I have always tried to do what was best for the Nation. Throughout the long and difficult period of Watergate, I have felt it was my duty to persevere, to make every possible effort to complete the term of office to which you elected me. In the past few days, however, it has become evident to me that I no longer have a strong enough political base in the Congress to justify continuing that effort. (…) Sometimes I have succeeded and sometimes I have failed, but always I have taken heart from what Theodore Roosevelt once said about the man in the arena, 'whose face is marred by dust and sweat and blood, who strives valiantly, who errs and comes short again and again because there is not effort without error and shortcoming, but who does actually strive to do the deed, who knows the great enthusiasms, the great devotions... (…) When I first took the oath of office as President 5 1/2 years ago, I made this sacred commitment, to 'consecrate my office, my energies, and all the wisdom I can summon to the cause of peace among nations'. I have done my very best in all the days since to be true to that pledge. As a result of these efforts, I am confident that the world is a safer place today, not only for the people of America but for the people of all nations. (…) As President, I must put the interest of America first. America needs a full-time President and a full-time Congress. To continue to fight through the months ahead for my personal vindication would almost totally absorb the time and attention of both the President and the Congress in a period when our entire focus should be on the great issues of peace abroad and prosperity without inflation at home. Therefore, I shall resign the Presidency effective at noon tomorrow".[3]

"All the News That's Fit to Print"

The New York Times

LATE CITY EDITION

NEW YORK, FRIDAY, AUGUST 9, 1974

11 CENTS

NIXON RESIGNS

HE URGES A TIME OF 'HEALING'; FORD WILL TAKE OFFICE TODAY

'Sacrifice' Is Praised; Kissinger to Remain

The 37th President Is First to Quit Post

Photo: http://www.slideshare.net

[3] http://www.storyboardthat.com/storyboards/richard-cleggett/the-presidency-of-richard-nixon---nixon's-1974-resignation-speech

3. All the President's Men

Photo: https://www.moviefone.com

The Watergate journalistic investigation was depicted first in the book the two protagonists decided to write in order to bring to light all the details of a political situation that shook America. Carl Bernstein and Bob Woodward took the decision to put down the whole story when the famous actor Robert Redford revealed his intention of purchasing the film rights. So the book that describes the way in which Bernstein and Woodward conducted the investigation called "maybe the single greatest reporting effort of all time"[4] by Gene Roberts, the former managing editor of The New York Times, was published in 1974. The name of the book comes from a rhyme about Humpty Dumpty ("All the king's horses and all the king's men / Couldn't put Humpty together again"), also used by Robert Penn Warren when he named his novel *All the King's Men*. The book reveals the events behind the columns the duo wrote for The Washington Post, giving details about some sources they used and who were not named in the articles (as an example, Hugh Sloan is for the first time revealed as source in the book). There are also described the secret meetings of Woodward with the mysterious source Deep Throat, whose real identity was not revealed until 2005: the then FBI Associate Director W. Mark Felt.

The fast-paced narration of the book is assumed also by the 1976 homonymous movie produced by Robert Redford and directed by Alan J. Pakula. The film evokes the fascinating story, recalled in the book, about the way Bob Woodward (Robert Redford) and Carl Bernstein (Dustin Hoffman) piece together the information they are able to get and how they managed to unravel the truth hidden behind the smoke screen created by the American officials. All the stages

[4] Harris, Roy J., Jr., *Pulitzer's Gold*, Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 2007, p. 233.

of the journalistic investigation, with all the breakthroughs and the backlashes, are artistically reenacted by a phenomenal cast under a skilled direction. Pakula uses a clinical approach in order to conduct the plot in a very detached manner, closer to the one used in the documentaries and docudramas. The story is driven calmly to the long awaited climax. After several meetings in which the mysterious source known as Deep Throat give no more than hints and suggestions, the informant decides to reveal Bob Woodward that H. R. Haldeman masterminded the Watergate break-in and cover-up and that the cover-up operation was intended not only to hide the link between the burglaries and the Committee for the Re-Election of the President, but to hide mainly the "covert operations" involving "the entire U.S. intelligence community". An extraordinary confession which comes with a warning: Woodward, Bernstein and everyone involved in this investigation are in great danger. The movie ends metaphorically with the two reporters frantically typing while Richard Nixon is taking the Oath of Office, for his second term as President of the United States, a term that he will not finish because of the words Bernstein and Woodward type at that very moment.

Speaking about authenticity and artistic views, we must stress that the story relies on the book as the book relies on the real events. Not loosely, but with a significant deal of artistic liberty. As an example, the iconic line "Follow the money" is used only in the movie, it does not appear in the book. The film focuses mostly on two reporters becoming sleuths, and not on the Watergate affair in itself, as Matthew Ehrlich observes: "*All the President's Men* is more about two reporters acting as detectives than the complex historical reality of Watergate". [5] On the other hand, Roger Ebert reproaches Pakula for concentrating more on the journalistic dimension of the story, and not on the human one, thus undermining the storytelling, a reproof that somehow comes in contradiction with Ehrilch and Rosenstone's assertions that the movies about journalism, *All the President's Men* included, are almost exclusively about personal relationships and not about the journalistic act in itself: "*All the President's Men* is truer to the craft of journalism than to the art of storytelling, and that's its problem. The movie is as accurate about the processes used by investigative reporters as we have any right to expect, and yet process finally overwhelms narrative - we're adrift in a sea of names, dates, telephone numbers, coincidences, lucky breaks, false leads, dogged footwork, denials, evasions, and sometimes even the truth. Just such thousands of details led up to Watergate and the Nixon resignation, yes, but the movie's more about the details than about their results. (…) *All the President's Men* doesn't dwell on the private lives of its characters, but it does have a nice touch with their professional lives, and especially with their relationships with editors. The Watergate story started as a local story, not a national one, and it was a continuing thorn in the side of the Post's prestigious national staff as Woodward

[5] Ehrlich, Matthew C., *Journalism in the Movies*, University of Illinois Press, 2004, p.178

and Bernstein kept it as their own".[6]

Maybe the critic is right and the storyline sometimes is difficult to comprehend because of the details revealed, although it does reflect the chaotic reality of a newspaper desk, but the lack of insight regarding the personal lives of the reporters is a perspective assumed by both the book and the movie. Alan J. Pakula doesn't want to divert our attention from the main plot, he wants to assure that the audience follows the leads at the same time with the characters acting on the big screen. It is a sense of authenticity that makes us overlook the flaws of the script or of the direction. It is one of the things that make *All the President's Men* a great movie. A value judgment certified by the numerous awards and honors received by the film and its selection for preservation in the United States National Film Registry for being "culturally, historically, or aesthetically significant"[7], as decided by the Library of Congress.

4. Frost/Nixon

Photo: www.youtube.com

Based on the famous *Nixon Interviews* from 1977, *Frost/Nixon* was originally a play written by the screenwriter and playwright Peter Morgan that was premiered in August 2006 at the Donmar Warehouse Theatre in London, starring Michael Sheen as David Frost and Frank Langella as Richard Nixon. Following the enthusiastic reception from public and critics alike, it was later played at the Gielgud Theatre in London's West End, also with Sheen and Langella in the leading roles. In 2007, the play crossed the Atlantic and was presented on Broadway first, then in Chicago, Madison (Ohio) and Philadelphia.

[6] http://www.rogerebert.com/reviews/all-the-presidents-men-1976
[7] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/All_the_President's_Men_(film)

The success of the play in the United States of America made movie director Ron Howard propose turning the play into a film. Peter Morgan adapted the screenplay and at the end of 2008 the movie *Frost/Nixon*, starring the same Michael Sheen and Frank Langella, was released in both Great Britain and USA, receiving widely critical acclaim. The film describes the events taking place three years after Nixon's resounding resignation. The former president had been away from the spotlight since he left the office and one of his collaborators thought that a series of televised interviews might restore Richard Nixon's reputation, seriously affected by the Watergate scandal, and also earn him some money. The British journalist David Frost, who is presented as being in an rather unfortunate moment of his career at that moment, hosting a minor talk show in Australia, ceases the opportunity and signs a contract with the former American president, accepting Nixon's $600.000 demand. A contract as a gamble for Frost, who is risking both his money and his career. Hence a true battle of minds begins, as Frost is trying harder and harder to make Nixon publicly admit that he was aware of the taping operations and the subsequent cover-up. The first series of interviews were relatively easy for Nixon, as he avoided most controversial subjects and kept the reporter at a safe distance from his vulnerable points. That is why David Frost feels like he is losing the fight and starts a more rigorous research, helped by a heterogeneous group of collaborators led by James Reston Jr. After a string of errors and hesitations, Frost finally starts to score in the match and moves on to the controversies surrounding Watergate, trying in the light of newly discovered evidence to force his opponent confess about his probable wrongdoing.

After a bizarre telephone conversation in the dead of night with an intoxicated Nixon, David Frost ambushes his interlocutor by presenting transcripts of a compromising conversation between Richard Nixon and Charles Colson. The crucial part of the dialogue is when the British journalist confronts Richard Nixon with the fact that actually a significant part of the White House Tapes are missing: "What did Haldeman tell you during the eighteen and a half minute gap?". The former president is visibly caught off guard by Frost and subsequently becomes more and more nervous. And the interviewer is almost shocked to see his interlocutor crack and say "When the President does it, that means it's not illegal!". Nixon confesses that he voluntarily impeached himself in 1974 and he made many bad judgments regarding Watergate, admitting that he let down the American people by patronizing an unethical operation that he does not consider to be a proper cover-up, as we can notice from the answer he gave in the original interview: "I came to the edge ... Under the circumstances I would have to say that a reasonable person could call that a cover-up. I didn't think of it as a cover-up. I didn't intend it to cover-up. Let me say if I intended to cover-up, believe me I'd have done it. Do you know how I could have done it, so easily? I could have done it immediately after the election simply by giving clemency to everyone and the whole thing would have gone away. I couldn't do

that because I said clemency was wrong. But now we come down to the key point and let me answer it in my own way. How do I feel about the American people. Whether I should have resigned earlier. Or what I should say to them now. Well, that forces me to rationalize now and give you a carefully prepared, cropped statement. I didn't expect this question, frankly, though so I'm not going to give you that, but I could tell you this. (…) Yup, I let the American people down, and I have to carry that burden with me for the rest of my life. My political life is over. I will never again have an opportunity to serve in any official position. Maybe I can give a little advice from time to time".[8]

That is the climax of the movie, and Ron Howard builds the intensity and the tension with great skill, making the audience look at the confrontation as if it was not a reenactment but the actual interview taking place before their own eyes. This was mostly possible because of the remarkable performances of the two leading actors, as critic Roger Ebert emphasizes: "Frank Langella and Michael Sheen do not attempt to mimic their characters, but to embody them. There's the usual settling-in period, common to all biopics about people we're familiar with, when we're comparing the real with the performance. Then that fades out and we become absorbed into the drama. Howard uses authentic locations (Nixon's house at San Clemente, Frost's original hotel suite), and there are period details, but the film really comes down to these two compelling intense performances, these two men with such deep needs entirely outside the subjects of the interviews. All we know about the real Frost and the real Nixon is almost beside the point. It all comes down to those two men in that room while the cameras are rolling".[9]

But not all the reviews were eulogistic. For example, the authenticity of the depiction was again a topic of debate for some critics who accused Peter Morgan and Ron Howard of distorting the reality. Elisabeth Drew thinks that there is more than that to be blamed, in her opinion there is also a matter of illegitimacy that makes the movie completely dishonest: "It's because of the enormously historical importance of that period that the film raises serious questions of its legitimacy. The film's plot is a contrivance; its telling is so riddled with departures from what actually happened as to be fundamentally dishonest; and its climactic moment is purely and simply a lie. Literary license in the name of drama or entertainment is one thing; the issue comes down to what one is taking license with, and the degree of license being taken".[10]

But the artistic liberty and the dramatic license are not to be blamed as long as they don't change the facts beyond recognition in a biopic. Apart from the obvious flaws and inaccuracies of the movie, Morgan and Howard try to stick as closer as possible to authenticity and the essential parts of the story are not modified. They don't sacrifice factualness, they just make some artistic twists

[8] https://www.awesomestories.com/asset/view/Richard-Nixon-Apologizes-for-Watergate
[9] http://www.rogerebert.com/reviews/frostnixon-2008
[10] http://www.huffingtonpost.com/elizabeth-drew/ifrostnixoni-a-dishonorab_b_150948.html

that can do no harm to authenticity, but can definitely add value to the artistic approach. And they manage to give a plausible closure to a major story that marked both politics and journalism. A performance for which the public (and the critics, why not) must feel grateful, and not offended.

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PROPAGANDA IN ANCIENT ROME

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Abstract

The Eternal City was not only a world power, a gendarme of the ancient world for a long period of time, but also a power of communication. To increase its influence, ancient Rome made extensive use of communication techniques such as: manipulation, persuasion, and especially propaganda. We can say that Rome was the first laboratory of effective propaganda which obtained tangible results: Romanization.

Roman propaganda followed several stages, depending on the political organization of the City of Seven Hills. Thus, during the Kingdom there was a kind of propaganda with mystical overtones, which ranked Rome as a kingdom of divine origin, and during the Republic, Roman propaganda became a state policy with theorists and practitioners. During the Roman Empire, propaganda reached its peak and managed to perfectly function throughout the world ruled by the Romans, while turning it into a Roman world through the impact of its persuasion.

The Romans propagated their influence mainly through the army, therefore Romanization is primarily a military propaganda, words and deeds were transformed by the Romans in weapons meant to conquer the souls of the vanquished. So, propaganda has not only a Latin etymology, but also Roman practical application.

Keywords: ancient Rome, communication techniques, ideology, influence, psychological war

Introduction

Propaganda has a Latin etimology, therefore Rome can also assume the paternity of this complex process of communication. Although it refers to plants, the verb *propago, -are=1. to multiply (by cuttings); 2. to increase, to stretch, to extend* (Guțu, 1993, p. 330) lies at the origin of the complex communication process of propaganda, actually a derivative from the passive future participle (Strechie, 2013, p. 138) *propagandus*, expressing necessity and being translated as '*which has to be enlarged, multiplied, stretched, extended*'.

The Romans wanted to create a universal Roman society, and this was done by "nationalization", since they had a theory of "absolute society". The aim of Rome was to create "*res communi omnes*" (Gusti,1995, p. 4, p. 64, p. 45) (things common to everybody – our transl.). This world society was Rome, which had to be propagated to the vanquished as the Eternal City.

Like any communication process, Roman propaganda had its actors, the

most important were its soldiers, as "war creates the closest solidarity between all sons of the same fatherland" (*Ibidem*:106).

Besides actors, Roman propaganda had a well defined goal – "a kind of organized and planned persuasion intended to influence and direct the opinion" (Vlăduțescu, 2006, p. 245) of the Romans, but especially the public opinion of the non-Romans, who had to be Romanized. Roman public opinion developed in time, *Republica* being the most beautiful embodiment of it. The state representing the interests of the community by elected representatives, this was the revolution caused by the emergence of the Republic as a form of government, a participatory democracy of all Roman citizens by electing worthy representatives from among them. Therefore, Roman public opinion was the most drastic "tribunal of public interests" (Gusti D. 1995: 66).

The propaganda of Rome became in time a state policy with its own "grammar of persuasion" which included: "the prestige" of Rome, "the statement" that Rome was the best of all possible worlds, "the repetition" that the Romans were chosen by the gods to rule the world and "the mental contagion" (Le Bon G. no year: 98) of all its subjects by integrating them into this world of all possibilities, through the Latin language and values, in other words through Romanization, the act of becoming Roman by embracing Roman values.

The evolution of propaganda coincided with the evolution of Rome, with the three mandatory stages: 1. "symbolic propaganda" particularly evident during the Kingdom, when the Romans chose the god of Mars with all his symbols, as the father and model of the royal leader; 2. "tactical propaganda" with power interests in the region, visible during the Republic when Rome slowly but surely built its empire and dismembered other empires with which it competed (the Punic Wars are part of this "tactical propaganda"); 3. "strategic propaganda" (Vlăduțescu, 2006, pp. 254-255) present during the Empire, inaugurated by Caesar, masterfully continued by Augustus, which led to the imposition of Roman interests worldwide, *Pax Romana* and *Romanization* being the masterpieces of this type of propaganda.

Strategic as it was, it certainly had the support of the Roman army, which became the main agent of propaganda and politics, by its changing from an institution of force into an institution of political and military force.

The symbols of Roman propaganda

Like any other propaganda, the Roman one used symbols. These symbols were almost the same from Kingdom to Empire, and others were added depending on the interests of Rome. The symbols of Roman propaganda were both physical (usually former totems or representations of divine attributes), and theoretical such as ideology transmitted through literary works and the personality cult.

During the Kingdom, the symbols of Roman propaganda were the gods and the totems of the wolf and the eagle. "Hagiography" (Hentea C. 2015:28-29) was fully used to make an "image" of the king. The first king, even if legendary,

Romulus, was the son of Mars, the god of war, and his mother was Rhea Silvia, a descendant of Aeneas, the son of Venus, the goddess of love. So the Romans' descent had a double divine seal, they were like the gods.

Totems like the wolf and the eagle were symbols of power, later they became symbols of the Roman state, the wolf (Strechie M. 2014 a.: 292-299) (she-wolf) was a political symbol symbolizing the Roman state and the eagle was a military symbol, representing the Roman legions (whose fight flag was a stylized eagle) (Strechie, 2014 b., pp. 97-107).

Rome was a myth and a goddess for the Romans of the Kingdom. This Roman myth was the expression of divine origin, invincibility nature and liberating vocation (Vlăduțescu, 2006, p. 246; Vlăduțescu & Ionescu, 2015).

By this "power of evocation" the propaganda of royal Rome imposed a real "ideology" and, at the same time, a political "organization" (Arădăvoaice Gh. Coord. 1987: 247, 314) by the electoral reform, namely "he who defends the country rules it". This is how the Latin collective mind was created, dominated by the awareness of the divine mission on earth, namely to Romanize the world. The Latin collective mind was fully and especially manifest in the Republic. During this period propaganda became for the Romans first of all "a way of spreading certain sympathies on behalf of certain goals" (Hentea, 2002, p. 19), i.e. national, Roman objectives.

The main republican values of the Roman mind which were propagated included "the cult of homeland, courage, virtue, devotion, dedication to the public good" (Vlăduțescu, 2006, p. 246), in other words *res* were *publica* for all Roman citizens. During the Republic, Rome's main propagated ideals were related to *cursus honorum*. Now the personal merit dedicated to the Roman state was the most important. The Roman fundamental values were *virtus*, *fides* and *pietas* (Grimal, 1973), i.e. bravery, loyalty and respect for the sacred. Public offices were designed for the advancement of the state of Roman citizens, *Res publica*. A new mentality value emerged, that of *homo novus*, theorized by Cicero (Cicero M. T. 1903), himself such a man. *Homo novus* was a self-made man, a man of his own merit, dedicated to the Roman state.

Republican propaganda used a sort of communication that "wanted to influence the receiver", *populus Romanus*, and wanted "a management of collective attitudes through the manipulation of significant symbols" (Hentea C. 2008: 386, 387). The main institutionalized and representative propaganda body was ***SPQR***, i.e. ***Senatus populusque Romanus*** (The Senate and the Roman people) actually the Roman state, led by the elected representatives of the Roman citizens. The Senate was the parliament of Rome and also the supreme institution of Rome, which also detained and delegated its *imperium* to Roman magistrates. So, Rome made an internal propaganda by this "institutionalized means of influencing individual and collective attitudes and behaviour" (*Ibidem*: 390), as well as an external propaganda by extending its *imperium* throughout its provinces, which significantly multiplied during the Republic.

The values of propaganda multiply with the expansion of Roman rule in

the world, propaganda that made the object of literature, especially Caesar's *De Bello Gallico,* considered "a masterpiece of propaganda literature" (Hentea C. 2002:40), propaganda addressing Roman citizens, therefore internal, but also of "integration" (*Ibidem*: 21). Propaganda's means change with the great politician and brilliant strategist Caesar. As he makes a real "imagology war" primarily intended for the Roman citizens through "deliberate and concrete action carried out in time of peace or war to impose a public image" (*Ibidem*: 30). So, he uses the victory against the Gauls as the glory of the Roman state which brought him perpetual glory, spreading among the Roman citizens "sympathies on behalf of goals" (*Ibidem*: 19). By the parade of the victorious troops with all their spoils before the Roman citizens, Caesar, even if he had crossed the Rubicon and begun a new civil war, created a new "country brand", i.e. "those intangible values of the country" (Hentea C. 2015:32). The values of the country brand of Rome were the superiority of its institutions, its language, army, light and model for the barbarians. These Roman values were visible especially by "the demonstration of force", "an ostentatious public manifestation of the potential as a military force" (*Ibidem*:68) that Caesar had on behalf of *populus Romanus*.

Roman republican propaganda has not only practitioners like Caesar, but also theorists like Cicero, who gave Roman propaganda its theoretical side, namely oratory. In Cicero's view, highlighted in his work, *De oratore,* the great scholar said that "*An orator should be required the sharpness of a logician's mind, the thinking of a philosopher, the expression similar to that of a poet, the memory of a legal expert, the voice of a tragedian and, I would say, the gestures of a famous actor. Therefore, there is nothing rarer in this world than a perfect orator"* (Guțu Gh. ed. 1973 paragraph translated from *De oratore*, I, 28, 128:31). This was Cicero, the orator, and the perfect propagandist, the one who could impress and managed to change the attitude and determine the behaviour of the Roman citizens. Moreover, Cicero identifies several types of making propaganda by the art of words, thus identifying three oratorical genres, *genera dicendi:* the sublime genre, the simple genre and the medium genre. Orators of the first category have a pompous speech, vast and deep ideas, majestic expression, they are vehement, various, abundant, strong, possessing all the qualities to move the spirits and to delight them. The second category includes simple, sharp orators, clearing issues within a limited framework, they are not vast in speech, using a sober, focused and careful style. Orators belonging to the last category distinguish themselves by practising a temperate, equal, fluent, discreet style in the use of arguments, without the excess of subtlety of some or the fervour of others (*Ibidem* paragraph translated from *De optimo genere oratorum*: 46.).

By the effects of oratory on the Romans, the great man of culture, Cicero, also theorizes such manipulation techniques as: "thinking, behaviour, feelings" (Ficeac B. 20065: 115; Bușu & Teodorescu, 2016). For all these could be influenced by the art of words that Cicero mastered.

During the Empire, from Augustus, Roman propaganda begins to have an

ideology through the *Aeneid* of Virgil. This ideology was primarily a military one (Strechie M. 2015: in print). Like any ideology, the Roman one had "context, interests, strategies" (Arădăvoaice Gh. coord. 1987: 71-72.). The context of the propaganda-ideology of the Roman Empire with Augustus was *orbis terrarum* (the entire world), the interests of Rome were the organization of *orbis* after the model of Rome (there were also slogans for these interests such as *Roma Victor – victorious Rome*, *Ubi bene ibi patria – Homeland is where it is good*, *Pax Romana – Roman peace*), and the strategies were conceived and put into practice by the Roman army (in particular by granting Roman citizenship to provincials who fought for Rome, for them and for their families; recruitment into the basic institution of Rome was the best strategy to propagate/multiply Roman ideals and rights worldwide).

We can say that the Empire transformed propaganda in state politics, as well as an institution of psychological warfare, for Rome conquered not only territories, but also the conscience of people. There were real "public relations campaigns" by the Roman entertainment industry, by recruiting among the ranks of the armed forces the most effective elements of the provinces, by the symbols of Roman power, by cultural works.

In the 1st century BC and 1st century AD, the classics of Latin literature created for Rome. All the great men of culture of Rome founded the Roman ideology consisting of "information, theories, values, strategies for action, awareness" (*Ibidem*:77-83). Lyrics such as the Aeneid, which traced the fate of the Roman to be a universal gendarme, make a cultured propaganda out of the Roman propaganda.

The Roman *Imperium* becomes universal, therefore the title of the Roman leader and his cult represented a link of propaganda. Besides *IMPERATOR*, (originally, the military rank of general) CAESAR (initiator of the imperial governance) there appears the title of DIVUS (the one like the gods). This very title of DIVUS is the most powerful symbol that the propaganda of Imperial Rome worked with. If during the Kingdom and the Republic, Rome made propaganda especially for its citizens, during the Empire it made the propaganda of its citizens for the whole conquered world.

The purpose of Roman propaganda

The purpose of Roman propaganda was Romanization. In addition to a complex cultural process, Romanization was a genuine "war of meanings" won by "operations for the purpose of influencing" (Hentea C. 2015: 229, 106) that changed the behaviour of the defeated, from barbarians into Romanized people, in other words, like the Romans. Therefore, many expressions like "When in Rome, do as the Romans do" or "All roads lead to Rome" best reflected this Roman successful propaganda. The previously barbarian world became, consciously, Roman by embracing Roman values and a new consciousness, the most desirable purpose of propaganda of all times.

Conclusions

Ancient Rome was not by chance a world power. It knew not only how to obtain control of the world (through military, economic, psychological operations), but also how to maintain and organize its power through a complex system of institutions, techniques and relations. The most important of them, through their psychological effects, were the means of communication. By these means of communication Rome was able to propagate its ideals, values, ideas and interests. Rome was a power of communication and a power through communication. It brilliantly implemented concepts that today we consider modern and post-modern such as propaganda, manipulation, disinformation, psychological warfare, psychological operations.

In the field of propaganda, Rome surpassed whatever had been previously created by China and Persia. The City of Seven Hills made of propaganda a genuine institution serving the state and its interests, an institution with actors, strategies and goals.

Rome conquered the world not only physically, but also emotionally, changing the will of many barbarian nations, persuading them to become Romans by their behaviour, attitudes, will, in other words the Romans also fought the mind of the defeated nations, while successfully practising "operations for the purpose of influencing". The real masterpiece of their propaganda was Romanization, a process so far unmatched by any other power, though many declared themselves the second or the third Rome.

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TYPES OF SUPPORT SERVICES GRANTED FOR THE VICTIM OF A CRIME

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Abstract

Usually, a crime implies the coexistence of two parts: the offender and the victim. If most studies deal with researches on the offender's behaviour after having committed the crime, the present article aims at analysing the perspectives that the aggrieved party has. We will display one alternative of the legal dispute, e.g. mediation, which can be also transposed, in practice, to criminal acts, indeed under certain conditions. At the same time, the probation services are designed in such a way that they should also address the victim of a crime. This person should be supported in overcoming the crisis period after having borne the consequences of a crime.

Keywords: victim, mediation, probation

1.The legislative plan concerning victim protection

In the new Romanian Criminal Procedure Code, the victim (or the aggrieved party) is approached in a whole new article – art. 81, which passes in review his/her rights: the right to see the case file, the right to be communicated the stage of the criminal prosecution, the right to be heard, the right to suggest measures of inquiry etc.

The old regulation used to mention that the victim could be heard as a witness, unless he/she became a civil party in the lawsuit or if he/she did not participate in the lawsuit as the aggrieved party. by special legislation – the law 211/2004, a legal regime for protecting the victims of crimes was established.

In this respect, some protective measures have been introduced, as well as psychological counselling, free legal assistance and financial compensations coming from the state. As a matter of principle, public authorities in collaboration with non-governmental organizations set up public information campaigns over these rights. The state ensures the permanent functioning of a telephone line available for denouncing various abuses. If from a telephone conversation it results that the victim is in danger, they will automatically inform the police unit.

In another train of thoughts, the restorative justice is a new solution for the romanian criminal policy. By means of the law no 192/2006 on mediation and the organization of the profession of mediator, there have been determined a few principles that govern the mediation of penal cases (art. 67-70).

For instance, the parties' reconciliation can make up the object of mediation, but only regarding certain crimes. This type of criminal proceedings

closure (art. 231 of the new Criminal Code) has been extended over to crimes which in the past used to be under the state's exclusive power: the theft (under certain ways of committing). The old provisions did not allow the closure of criminal proceedings (exercised only by the state) even if the aggrieved party did not have any claim. Such subsequently-found regulation deficiencies have been eliminated: "basic penalties are not doubled any further by alternative sanctions, while some texts that describe the crimes and map out the limits of the penalties display a certain inflexibility, situation which makes them too less functional and sometimes inadequate to specific cases" (Danes 2002).

The inclusion of art. 16, par. 1, letter *g* into the new criminal procedure code refers to extrajudicial mediation. Before the aggrieved party formulates the preliminary complaint, one may try the reconciliation of the conflict. This possibility comes as an alternative to exercising criminal action. According to art. 312, par. 3 and art. 367, par. 3 of the new Criminal procedure code, criminal prosecution and, respectively, the trial of the case can be suspended for a period of maximum 3 months, after the respective parties have signed the mediation contract. This period of time is believed to be enough for trying to amicably settle down the criminal conflict. (Gorea and Costin 2009).

The conclusion of an agreement for guilt acknowledgement between the defendant and the prosecutor, by means of an authorised mediator, is a principle established in art. 472-482 of the Criminal Procedure Code. The involvement of a mediator in this case is not banned by any legal text and the statement of reasons of the new Criminal procedure code is in agreement with it. (Dana 2010). Nevertheless, this agreement will also have to be analysed by a court of law, taking into account that in this manner the prosecutor's risk of transforming into a judge will be avoided. According to the 126 article of the Constitution, justice can be attained only by courts of law. If a victim was involved in the crime, the issue of protecting his/her rights will determine a greater care for investigating the "transaction" between the prosecutor and the defendant, even if the aggrieved party has withdrawn his/her claim or has reconciled with the law breaker. (see the article 248 of new Criminal Procedure Code and Decision nr. 235/7.04.2015 of the Constitutional Court).

The compensation for the caused damage and the delinquent's accountability define restorative justice. The classical penalty used to imply the offender's passive attitude which was limited to "digesting" the sanction of a punitive nature. Mediation removes the existing risk within a legal dispute, e.g. one party will not receive the anticipated Court resolution. At this point, the parties will attain their interests, as a result of a reciprocal concession facilitated by a mediation specialist.

In addition, the society is exempted from the expenses with the management of the public services of justice (the trial and the enforcement of the sentence) and, in a relatively short period of time, it will return to its necessary previous balance as a result of having settled down or avoided the conflict.

2.Therapeutic means dedicated to the victim of a crime

"If at a certain point in time the emphasis was laid on the delinquent's resocialization as object of public solicitude, nowadays it is very outstanding the interest for diminishing the consequences of a crime over the victims" (Bocancea and Neamtu 1999)

The victim has certain needs and expectations that can be intercepted as immediate needs (to be heard, to be treated with respect, without labelling and preconceptions, to be recognised as the victim, the need for security, discretion etc.) and long-term needs (the need to have his/her case solved, the need to be protected from repeated victimisation, the need for a status in the criminal system). (Butoi, et al. 2004).

The criminal offence leads to the appearance of at least two categories of consequences related to the victim.

The first category is represented by the physical and financial impact. Simply putting it, the physical prejudice implies the victim of a brutality, while de financial one appears in the case of an action against his/her assets. In fact, the physical prejudice experienced by the victim usually determines also a psychological prejudice. This can have a direct impact over himself/herself (the diminishing or lack of the victim's self-esteem) or over the others (the image of the criminal offence creates a permanent pressure on the victim, which will trigger aggression as a form of reaction towards the offender). Sometimes, the victim's reaction can seem disproportionate as compared with the initial act of the delinquent (in such a way that the victim transforms into aggressor) or influences other people's perception of the victim (the social support network can become inactive when the victim is apparently indifferent to the respective situation; his/her life partner cannot accept the idea that the victim will remain with a certain permanent invalidity – without an organ or deprived from a sense, especially when it concerns his/her face aspect; people from the victim's external environment can easily detect his/her flaws, by applying labels, and the victim's reaction will be one of revolt). (Birch and Hayward 1999).

The second negative consequence of the offence over the victim, e.g. psychological trauma, comprises several stages:

a) Initial violent reaction performed under a state of shock, when a mixture of feelings takes place: disbelief, dismay, anger, frustration. Frustration can cause excessive aggression and, implicitly, delinquent behaviour. The initial criminal legal enterprise will be doubled, concerning the second offence, the parties switching their procedural qualities. (Sdorow 1993);
b) The disorganization period when the following feelings emerge: confused ideas, nightmares, depression, anxiety, loss of self-esteem, loss of confidence in the loved-ones, the disappearance of the purpose of life;
c) The period of reconstruction, of accepting life as it is and the circumstances of having suffered the offence, when the victim starts to adapt (coping strategies). The victim becomes objective and assesses

his/her own resources necessary for going through this period. (Eysenck and Keane 1995);

d) The cognitive restructuring period when the victim re-evaluates the content of the event that caused him/her the trauma, with the possibility of repositioning his/her values and attitudes (Groza 2006).

During this last stage of the physical shock caused by the offence, the victim can have a positive attitude, finding his/her own explanations regarding the etymology of the suffered crime. The offence is regarded as a life experience, the victim will take a series of precautionary and self-protective measures, further on in life. There is also the situation in which the victim gives a distorted definition to the crime whose passive subject he/she was, ending up in resigning, without understanding the reasons why the incident had happened and, above all, the reasons why the things had happened as they did. The failure in this situation can be blamed both on the individual's particularities, as well as on the dysfunctionalities of the intervention system conceived by the state.

The risk of losing control over the victimised individual, this person giving up to any kind of individual or group therapy programme, to getting in contact with basic groups: family, friends, neighbours when in a short period of time he/she has to go through a "second victimisation".

The sources of this new trauma are represented basically by the legal authorities that he/she comes into contact with and whose profile is regularly very authoritarian, because they are part of a repressive system which imposes penalties (police, prosecutor, judge).

Medical and social institutions have a particular impact; they are involved in the period immediately after the commitment of the offence, managing the crisis moment. If the people assigned with attributions required by law to assess, monitor and have medical, psychological and social procedures performed in support of the victim display a superficial attitude, or even worse, an attitude of blaming the victim, the result is on the understanding. Recently, even mass-media can influence the victim's post-delinquent behaviour. Obtaining information and pictures at any cost is to the detriment of the victim's right to private life. A specific victim typology is represented by the abused under-aged girl, when we are talking about rapes, sexual acts involving minors, sexual corruption. We can identify certain particular factors favouring the appearance of the crime: the temporary or permanent absence of their own mothers, early puberty and, last but not least, the "social stock of knowledge". (Vicovan 2012)

The interaction between the victims' stock of knowledge – under-aged mothers – and the effects that they can generate describes the term of "social construction of social support and social assistance" (Payne 2011). In these cases it is dealt with the appearance of some delinquent acts (the rapist) as a result of some deviant types of behaviour (the under-aged girl who will become a mother). The intervention methods for overcoming the trauma will be long-termed and the respective specialists will come from probation services, as well as from general

directorates of social assistance and child protection. The specific protection measures that might be taken concern, this time, two minors: the under-aged mother and her new-born. From a psychological point of view, the therapy will be extremely complicated and complex while, from a legal viewpoint, an extremely important issue arises: can someone order the separation between a minor mother and her new-born in virtue of the minor's superior interest?

3.The intervention of probation services – relevant statistical data

The internal legislation initiates only formal aspects, but future regulations should also comprise some dispositions related to presenting the changes of the victim's psychological profile, as they are felt by him/her. "We signal in the United States an approach centred on the victim, by providing a separate chapter in the lawsuit, which can record the victim's declaration over the personal influence that the offence had over him/her (victim impact statements-vis). In this respect, the probation departments are involved in helping victims offer information on the negative effects imprinted to their conduit" (Abraham, et al. 2001). Unfortunately, at the Romanian probation services level, it is observed a descending trend concerning the support offered to the victims of a crime, tossing aside the limited character of the objectives set by law in this area of activity. Thus, nowadays, psychological counselling and other forms of assistance addressed to the victim barely exist if we are to make reference to the officially-reported statistical data (2010: 74 people, 2011: 43 people, 2012: 67 people, 2013: 15 people, and in 2014: 2 persons). Not only that the number of assisted victims has drastically declined, but also their distribution at a national level. If in 2013 there were 11 centres which offered these kinds of services, in 2014 only two counties were registered with such beneficiaries (Ministry of Justice 2016).

4.Conclusions

Although at a hypothetical level, the victim of a crime can dispose of the means provided by the legislation in force, in reality, the support provided to this person is quite limited. The novelties brought by the mediation institution allow the reassessment of his/her status. We must alarm the authorities concerning probation. Here, the prisoner's assistance and counselling prevail, although the crimes for which the prisoner can execute his/her penalty in liberty imply most often a victim (theft, common assault, manslaughter as a result of a traffic accident etc.). The reality is in this case expressed by the statistical data to which we have made reference throughout the present article. The premises for developing support means dedicated to the victims of crimes are thus created, although there are many things which need to be corrected, first of all at a regulation level and then at an administrative- bureaucratic level.

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CAUSES FOR THE TERMINATION OF AN AGENCY CONTRACT

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Abstract

The causes which may lead to the termination of an agency contract are regulated by the provisions of the New Civil Code and they refer both to the duration of the agency contract and to the successive execution thereof. Such cases include: expiration of the contract, unilateral denunciation and cancellation of the contract. This study also consists of an analysis of the causes for the termination of an agency contract according to the International Agency Contract drawn by the International Chamber of Commerce in Paris.

Key words*:* Agency contract; agent; principal

1. Introductory considerations

According to Article 2072 of the Civil Code, by the agency contract the principal steadfastly empowers the agent either to negotiate or both to negotiate and conclude contracts, on behalf and on the account of the principal, against remuneration, in one or more specified regions. It should be noted that at Community level, the agency contract has been regulated as a *sui generis* contract along with the adoption of the Council Directive from the 18th of December 1986 on the coordination of the laws of the Member States relating to self-employed commercial agents, 86/653/EEC. In Romanian law, the agency contract has gained its own configuration by the adoption of Law no. 509/2002 on permanent commercial agents[11], which was repealed by Law no. 71/2011 on the implementation of Law no. 287/2009 on the Civil Code[12].

Currently, the agency contract is regulated by Article 2072-2095 of the Civil Code. Article 2095 of the Civil Code states that these provisions are complementary, to the extent that they are compatible, with those on the commission contract (if the agent was given only the empowerment to act on the account of the principal, and not on its behalf) or with those on the contract of mandate with representation (if the agent was given power of representation).

The agency contract involves an act of empowerment of the principal by the agent, which may be with representation (in which case the contract is similar

[11] Published in the Official Journal, Part I, no. 581, from the 6th of August 2002.
[12] Published in the Official Journal no. 409, from the 10th of June 2011.

to the mandate with representation) or without representation (in which case the contract is similar to the commission contract). But the agency contract has certain specific elements, which differentiate it both from the contract of mandate with representation and the commission contract:

a) The possibility that the mandate be given with or without representation;

b) The fact that the agent's activity is remunerated; according to Article 2073 paragraph (1) subparagraph c) of the Civil Code, the agency contract is not applicable to situations where the agent carries out an unpaid activity;

c) The agent, who shall be an independent intermediary;

d) The stability of the relationship between principal and agent; the empowerment given to the agent is not one for a single act, but a steady empowerment for the negotiation or conclusion of several acts;

e) The empowerment is given for a specified area, for one or more specified regions (Leaua 2012, 106).

In Romanian law, the causes for termination of the agency contract take into account both the duration of the agency contract and the successive execution thereof. These causes are: expiration of the duration of the contract; unilateral denunciation of the contract, and its cancellation.

2. Expiration of the duration of the agency contract

If the agency contract was concluded for a fixed term, it shall be terminated on the date of expiration of the period set within the contract (Cărpenaru 2014, 579).

An agency contract concluded for a fixed term, which continues to be executed by the parties after the expiration of the period, shall be deemed extended for an indefinite period (Article 2088 of the Civil Code).

The extension of the duration of the agency contract operates *ex lege*.

3. Unilateral denunciation of the agency contract

An agency contract concluded for an indefinite period may be unilaterally denounced by either party, by notice required.

Agency contracts concluded for a fixed term, like the contracts which were converted into contracts for an indefinite period may also be terminated by unilateral denunciation if they contain a special clause to that effect.

As a general rule, the termination of the agency contract by unilateral denunciation must be accompanied by a period of notice.

By way of exception, the agency contract may be denounced without notice in the cases specified in Article 2090 of the Civil Code.

Duration of the period of notice is of at least a month for the first year of contract, according to Article 2089 paragraph (3) of the Civil Code. If the duration of the contract is longer than one year, the minimum period of notice shall be increased by one month for each additional year begun, the maximum duration of the period being of 6 months. Thus, if it is unilaterally denounced a

contract executed by the parties for one year and two months, the duration of the period of notice shall be at least of two months. It is worth mentioning that the parties may establish a period of notice longer than two months, but which cannot exceed six months.

The periods of notice cannot be shorter than those stipulated by law. By the agency contract, there cannot be established for the agent periods of notice longer than those established for the principal. *Per a contrario*, there can be established for the principal notice periods longer than those imposed to the agent.

According to Article 2089 paragraph (6) of the Civil Code, unless otherwise agreed by the parties, the period of notice expires at the end of a calendar month. Thus, if a period of notice is of 3 months and starts on the 5th of June, it ends on the 30th of September. The parties may agree a different time of expiration of the period, provided that they do not affect its duration. The period established by months ending on the corresponding day of the last month, in the example given on the 5th of September, the parties cannot provide a method of calculation according to which the period would end before that date.

In the case of an agency contract for a fixed term which is extended for an indefinite period it is taken into account the whole contract period, namely both the fixed term and the period during which it is concluded for an indefinite period, according to Article 2089 paragraph (7) of the Civil Code.

Article 2090 paragraph (1) of the Civil Code provides a special case of unilateral denunciation of the agency contract: the agency contract may be denounced without notice by either party, with the compensation for the damages caused to the other party, when exceptional circumstances, other than force majeure or unforeseeable circumstances, make it impossible to continue the collaboration between principal and agent. In this case, the agency contract is terminated upon the receipt of written notification of intent to denounce, without the need to show the reasons which led to the denunciation. The party who unilaterally denounced the contract is obliged to compensate for the damages suffered by the other contracting party (Cărpenaru 2014, 580).

The Romanian legal system did not know the concept of "exceptional circumstances" until the emergence of the agency contract legislation, a concept rooted in the doctrine of frustration of contract existing in British law (Dogaru 2015, 248). According to it, if an event which does not meet the conditions of force majeure or unforeseeable circumstances occurs after the parties signed the contract and without being able to reproach them with any fault, preventing the implementation or the execution of the convention in relation to clauses or issues originally stipulated, the contract may be denounced.

It is worth mentioning that between both legal systems there are important differences: in Britain, the party which does not execute its obligations is not liable, while in Romanian law, if one of the subjects of the legal relationship unilaterally denounces the contract according to exceptional circumstances, it must compensate for the damage thus caused to the other party.

On the other hand, in Romanian law, legal liability is based on the concept of fault. But, in contradiction to this principle, the exceptional circumstances provided by Article 2090 of the Civil Code are likely to bind the liability of the party which denounces the contract based on them, without being any form of guilt in that situation.

This aspect is an additional argument in support of the idea that the exceptional circumstances described in Article 2090 paragraph (1) of the Civil Code are incompatible with the general principles of contractual liability of the Romanian legal system (Dogaru 2014, 249).

4. Cancellation of the agency contract =

A contract may be cancelled due to violation of essential obligations assumed by the parties. The conditions under which cancellation may occur are the following:

- *a)* One of the parties did not execute its contractual obligations.

In terms of cancellation the provisions of Article 1551 of the Civil Code which provides that "In the case of contracts with successive execution, the creditor is entitled to cancellation, even if the failure to execute is insignificant, but is repeated." In other words, in terms of cancellation, a failure to execute, seemingly insignificant, if it is repeated, it becomes "significant" and therefore could lead to cancellation (Oglindă 2012, 445);

- *b)* The failure to execute shall be attributable to the party who has not met its obligations;

- *c)* The debtor of the non-executed obligation had been sent a payment default notice, as provided by law.

Thus, according to Article 2092 subparagraph a) of the Civil Code, the principal cancels the contract due to breach of its obligations by the agent. Similarly, Article 2093 subparagraph b) of the Civil Code states that: "An agency contract is cancelled as a result of the principal's fault".

Upon cancellation of the agency contract, it is not required to send a payment default notice, this institution intervening "without notice", and the parties being sent by right a payment default notice, under the law.

There are authors (Schiau 2009, 474) who consider that cancellation shall have a judicial character if the agency contract does not contain any stipulation to the contrary. We cannot agree with this opinion. Cancellation implies the existence of a contractual fault of one party which is determined by the court by a judgment.

5. Causes for the termination of an agency contract according to the model contract (International Agency Contract) drawn by the International Chamber of Commerce in Paris (Publication ICC 644/2002, second edition)

Internationally, the practical utility of the analyzed contract caused the systematization of the usage developed by professionals in this field, by drawing

up by the International Chamber of Commerce in Paris of a model agency contract – ICC International Agency Contract, ICC Publication no. 644-2000 (Baias, Chelaru, Constantinovici și Macovei 2012, 2073).

According to the publication, the agency contract is terminated in the following circumstances: A. Expiry of the contract; B. Unilateral denunciation of the contract; C. Cancellation of the contract.

A. Expiry of the contract. For the purposes of Article 18 B. of the Publication, the expiry of the contract is a cause for the termination of the convention only if the agreement between principal and agent was concluded for a fixed term. According to usage, the subjects of the contract shall provide for the automatic extension of the convention if any of them fails to send to the other a written notice of termination of the contract. This extension is usually done for successive periods of one year.

Notifications must be sent by means ensuring even the proof and date of receipt. According to the commercial practices in the field, notifications must be sent at least four months before the expiry of the contract. The period of notice is of six months, if the contract was executed over a period of five years.

B. Unilateral denunciation of the contract. Unilateral denunciation takes effect as regards the termination of the contract only if it is based on a written notification, sent by a means ensuring even the proof of receipt. The period of notice is of four months before the date of termination of the contract and if the contract lasted for five years, the period of notice is of six months. Unilateral denunciation applies to contracts concluded for an indefinite period. Unlike this regulation, Article 2089 paragraph (2) of the Civil Code provides the possibility of early unilateral denunciation of the agency contract for a fixed term which provides a special clause to that effect. This clause for the termination of the contract also applies to agency contracts concluded for a fixed term, converted into contracts for an indefinite period.

C. Cancellation of the contract. According to Article 20 of the Publication, the situations which give rise to cancellation are:

i) Substantial breach by one of the parties to the convention of its contractual obligations. Substantial breach refers to the total or partial failure to execute the contractual obligations by one party, while the other party is substantially deprived as regards the aspects to which it was entitled to expect if the contract had been implemented;

ii) Production or occurrence of some exceptional circumstances justifying the termination of the contract. These circumstances include: state of default of payment or bankruptcy, loss of capacity to execute the contract by one party, etc. The emergence of exceptional circumstances makes it unreasonable for one party to claim to the other party to continue to be liable under the contract.

However, the subjects of the agency contract may agree by contract to strictly specify the causes or the elements they consider to be exceptional circumstances (loss of property, change of management, loss or failure to obtain necessary licences etc).

In the situation of the occurrence of the causes leading to cancellation, the contract is immediately terminated. Therefore, there is no need to deliver a judgment or an arbitration decision. In this situation, there is no longer required the period of notice of four (six) months.

In order to operate the cancellation, the party invoking it must notify it to the other party in writing and with the proof of the date of receipt of such notification.

Therefore, according to the Publication, the cancellation does not imply only the existence of a contractual fault (failure to execute obligations) from one of the parties, but also the emergence of exceptional circumstances mentioned, which do not imply the existence of a form of guilt in the development of contractual relationships.

Cancellation of the contract takes effect even if it is subsequently proved that the party invoking it was wrong. However, this party can be obliged to pay compensation for the damage caused to its co-contractor as a result of improper cancellation of the convention. The amount of compensation is equal to the average commission that the agent would have charged for the period that would have remained until the end of the contract. The exception is represented by the case in which the injured party proves a higher value of the damage.

For the purposes of Article 20.6 of the Publication, compensation may be cumulated including with the allowance to which the agent is entitled along with the termination of the contract.

6. Indemnities

Article 17, paragraph (1) of the Council Directive from the 18th of December 1986 on the coordination of the laws of the Member States relating to self-employed commercial agents (86/653/EEC) provides that after the expiry of the contract, the commercial agent is entitled to an indemnity according to paragraph (2) or to compensation for damage according to paragraph (3). There are authors (Slorach and Ellis 2007, 380) who consider that this regulation has enabled the Member States of the European Community to proceed to the choice between two alternatives with regard to compensation, namely: indemnity, if the agent has effectively contributed to developing the business of the person represented by him/her and compensation, if the agent has suffered damage following the termination of contractual agency relationship.

In Romanian law, Article 22, paragraph (3) of Law no. 509/2002 and Article 2091 paragraph (3) of the Civil Code provide that granting indemnity does not affect the agent's right to claim compensation, under the law.

At the termination of the agency contract, according to Article 2091 of

the Civil Code, the agent is entitled to receive indemnity from the principal if he/she gained new customers for the principal or significantly increased the volume of operations with the existing customers, and the principal still gets substantial benefits from the operations with these customers.

According to the same article, the payment of such indemnity must be equitable, based on concrete circumstances, on the commissions that the agent should have received from the operations concluded by the principal with the customers in question, and also on the possible restriction of the agent's professional activity due to the insertion of the non-competition clause in the agency contract.

The amount of the indemnity (compensation) cannot be higher than the equivalent of the amount of an annual remuneration, calculated based on the annual average of remunerations received by the agent during the last five years of the contract; if the duration of the contract is less than 5 years, the annual remuneration is calculated based on the income earned in those years (Ene 2001, 38).

According to Article 2094, paragraph (4) of the Civil Code, the right to indemnity is also recognized by law upon termination of the agency contract following the agent's death. However, according to Article 2094, paragraph (5) of the Civil Code, the right to indemnity is extinguished if the agent or its heir does not send the principal a payment default notice as regards the payment of indemnity, within one year from the date of termination of the agency contract.

The concept of "termination of contractual relationships" is broadly understood by the legislator, as encompassing not only the unilateral cancellation of the contract for an indefinite period, but also the non-renewal of a contract for a fixed term or even events affecting the agent, such as its age, invalidity or disease, its death, etc. (Stancu 2007, 17).

As an exception to the rule provided in Article 2091 of the Civil Code, the agent is not entitled to indemnity in the following circumstances:

- the contract is cancelled by the principal due to the agent's breach of its obligations;
- the agent unilaterally denounces the contract, excluding cases of denunciation because of the agent's age, invalidity or disease, which prevent the agent's further activity;
- in the case of transfer of the agency contract by replacing the agent with a third party;
- unless otherwise agreed by the parties to the agency contract, in the case of novation of this contract, by replacing the agent with a third party.

There shall be no waiver to the detriment of the agent's interests from the provisions governing the entitlement to indemnity before termination of the agency contract, according to Article 2094 of the Civil Code, any contrary clause shall be considered as unwritten.

7. Compensation

As mentioned above, according to Article 2091, paragraph (3) of the Civil Code, granting indemnity does not affect the agent's right to claim compensation, under the law.

Thus, if termination of the agency contract creates some damage to the agent, it is entitled to claim the damage to the principal, after proving it out. The agent's right to compensation does not cover the eventual damage caused as a result of the breach of the principal's contractual obligations, but it covers the compensation for the termination of the contractual relationship as a result of denunciation. In order to exploit in court the right to compensation, the commercial agent must not prove the principal's contractual fault, but bring the proof of the sudden termination of the agency contract, of the existence of damage due to this fact, and the existence of a causal relationship between the termination of the contract and the creation of damages or injuries.

According to Article 17, subparagraph (3) of Directive 86/653/EEC, the commercial agent is entitled to compensation for damage resulting, in particular, if the termination of relationships with the principal intervenes if:

- The agent was not paid the commissions it would have benefited from following the proper execution of the agency contract, whilst the principal gets substantial benefits related to the commercial agent's activity;

- The commercial agent was not allowed to amortize the costs and expenses that it had incurred for the execution of the agency contract on the principal's advice.

The analysis of Article 17, subparagraph 3, the last sentence of Directive 86/653/EEC states the question of the moment when the commercial agent can claim to the principal the payment of the amounts of money representing the costs and expenses incurred for conducting intermediation activities. Directive 86/653/EEC addresses these issues in a way somewhat unfavorable for the agent: at the moment when the professional intermediary can claim coverage, the amortization of the expenses that it has incurred under the contract coincides with the termination of contractual relationships with the person from who it was granted empowerment. Until then, the agent's opportunity to claim these amounts to the principal is questioned.

On the other hand, beyond the issues related to the non-payment of commission or the uncovering the agent's expenses related to the implementation of the contract with the principal, the question arises whether there are other forms of damage to be compensated.

The award of compensation has its origins in the French legal system, being improper to the UK legislative framework.

In France, there is the view according to which the interpretation of Article 17 of the Directive would amount to the following aspects: if the Member State chooses the compensation system, it must cover the damage consisting in depriving of the commissions that the agent could have obtained and/or the

impossibility to cover expenses committed for the execution of the contract, on the principal's advice (Vogel 2012, 314).

In Scottish Case Douglas King v. T. Tunnock Ltd (2000 SC 424), the court was guided by French law in order to calculate the compensation for the agent.

In this case, the main elements which the court considered necessary to be taken into account were:

- Compensation is the price the principal must pay because it bought the whole part of the agent's market (goodwill) in connection with the implementation of the agency contract;

- The normal level of compensation is associated with the amounts of money representing the commission for two years.

This is different somewhat from indemnity, where there is applicable the commission principal per one year.

Another difference between compensation and indemnity is that the agent must contribute to the rise in the principal's turnover in order to receive the indemnity, while the professional intermediary must maintain this turnover of the person from who it was granted empowerment in order to receive large amounts as compensation.

In France, they have preserved and developed their own system of compensation, the regulations in this field being away from Directive 86/653/EEC and rather closer to commercial usage, legal traditions or customs.

In reality, where the Directive expressly provides for the situations where a damage is assumed to have been suffered (according to Article 17, subparagraph 3, mentioned above), the code is silent, scarcely providing that upon termination of the contract the commercial agent shall be entitled to receive compensation due to the damage suffered.

From these rules, according to Article L. 134-16 of the French Commercial Code, as in the Romanian national law, there shall be no waiver to the detriment of the agent's interests.

Another distinction is that the text provides due compensation at "the termination of the contract" and not at its end, as provided in Directive. This implies that if the period for which the contract was concluded is not extended, when the conditions are met, the right to compensation arises.

In the French legal system, compensation granted to the agent also includes the market (business) part lost by the commercial agent as part of common interest with the principal. Upon termination of the contract, the commercial agent appears as if it had suffered damage due to the loss of its possibility / ability to generate income (commissions) and also due to the inability to proceed with the transfer of the agency contract to another commercial agent. Just based on these considerations, the compensation due to the commercial agent appears as a right.

It is worth mentioning that the views expressed in French law which make the agency contract to be based on the theory of common interest mandate support

the principal's obligation to pay damages and interest, compensation, in case when the contract is terminated for reasons not related to the agent (Benabent 2001, 435).

The applicable rule is that termination of the agency contract by the principal, unless it is justified, entitles the agent to receive compensation. As in our law, in French law the serious breach of contractual obligations by the agent is a justified case of unilateral denunciation of the contract by the principal in order to allow it avoiding payment of compensation. Any other reason is seen as unjustified and abusive. In order to protect the agents' interests, the French courts have broadly interpreted the concept of "unjustified termination of the contract".

Termination of the contract by the principal due to economic reasons, such as reorganization of business, closing down the production of goods whose sale is subject to the agent's activity are unlikely to extinguish the agent's right to compensation. An exception to the facts mentioned above is represented by situations where reorganization of business or closing down the production is caused by force majeure (which, as a matter of fact, is rarely accepted by courts).

We consider that cases of reorganization of business or closing down the production represent in Romanian law justified reasons for the termination of the contract by the principal because of the impossibility of execution regulated by Article 1557 of the Civil Code.

In French law there also appeared views according to which in the field of agency contracts, the agent's right to compensation or indemnity as a result of the common interest mandate would mainly result in restricting the freedom to break contractual relationships or not to extend contracts for a fixed term in situations where there is an objective justification (Behar-Touchais and Virassamy 1999, 171).

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IMAGE CRISIS

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Abstract

Nowadays, the concept of "crisis" is encountered increasingly often, and this is because each activity is condemned to cross certain situations, if not anticipated since the time or not being managed in an appropriate manner, easily degenerate into crises. There are cases where, despite some crises are predictable and preventable, because they are not properly managed, especially in terms of communication, they get out of control and becomes widespread, affecting in this case the image and an organization's reputation, brand or public figures etc.

Disruptive behavior of organization members, a product expired still on the shelves, a complaint made public by a disgruntled customer products or services of an institution, in a video posted on a social networking site, a simple rumor or any other situation seemingly trivial that while it is not discovered and controlled in an appropriate manner, it can degenerate into a crisis. Therefore, in this study we propose to define and characterize a time of crisis, seeking to emphasize that, whatever its nature, it affects, first, the public image of an entity, turning and in her image crisis and finally we emphasize the role of communication, both before and during such situations.

Cuvinte cheie: *public image, image crisis, communication, PR, media.*

1. Introducere

Conceptul de „criză” își are rădăcina în limba greacă, acesta provine de la *krisis* ce face referire la termenul *decizie, hotărâre*, ce are puterea de a înfrânge perioada de indecizie și de incapacitate a organizației de a reevalua și reinterpreta probleme care îi amenință buna sa funcționare, punând accentul pe rezolvare (Chiciudean și Țoneș. 2002: 39). Unii autori consideră că, în timp, termenul de „criză” și-a pierdut din valoare, din cauza suprautilizării lui în diverse domenii, precum: economie, diplomație, psihologie, sociologie, religie etc.,care dau fiecare câte o semnificație diferită aceluiași termen (*Idem*). Din acest motiv, întâlnim diverse tipuri de crize, dar indiferent de natura lor și de domeniile în care apar, ele afectează în mod profund imaginea sistemelor din care fac parte.

În literatura de specialitate, o *criză* este definită ca fiind o întâmplare majoră a cărei potențiale efecte negative afectează atât organizația, precum și publicurile, produsele, serviciile și renumele său (Fearn-Banks. 2011: 2). Prin urmare, *o situație de criză* este o chestiune mult prea serioasă și nu poate fi comparată cu *problemele* cotidiene pe care specialiștii în Relații Publice le pot

rezolva sau le pot evita fără a atrage atenția publicului și a mass-media. Din definițiile de mai sus reiese faptul că situațiile de criză au capacitatea de a întrerupe funcționarea normală a organizațiilor, amenințând activitatea și existența acestora. Așadar, crizele reprezintă o perioadă de anormalitate în care membrii organizației pierd controlul și sunt neputincioși în fața situației.

În fapt, așa cum am specificat mai sus, toate aceste categorii de crize au în comun faptul că întrerup starea de normalitate în care funcționează organizațiile sau alte sisteme, iar din acest motiv, indiferent de tipul de criză și de efectele pe care le are asupra funcționalității acestora, această situație de anormalitate afectează în primul rând *imaginea* acestora.

Din perspectiva Relațiilor Publice, termenul de „criză" este definit ca fiind orice eveniment, declarație, zvon sau poveste care poate avea efecte negative asupra reputației, imaginii sau credibilității unui sistem (Yaverbaum, Bly și Benun. 2006: 279).

Deci, *criza de imagine* fi o consecință a unui eveniment major care a avut loc în viața unei organizații sau poate apărea individual de alte elemente, ca umare a unor declarații mincinoase, a unor încercări de dezinformare, în urma unei comunicări deficitare sau în momentul descoperirii de către public a discrepanței care există între imaginea proiectată de către organizație (imaginea transmisă) și imaginea pe care aceasta o are în realitate.

Un exemplu de *criză de imagine*, independentă de alte evenimente, este cea prin care a trecut Traian Băsescu, pe care chiar el însuși a provocat-o prin declarațiile sale „acide" și prin repetarea unui comportament neadecvat în ceea ce privește relația sa cu jurnaliștii, ajungând până la stadiul de a-i insulta pe aceștia, cum ar fi jignirea pe care i-a adus-o unei tinere jurnalist la Bruxelles, făcând-o „țigancă împuțită", iar toate aceste fapte au condus la declanșarea unei crize mediatice și implicit de imagine.

Odată apărută, *criza de imagine* poate avea o multitudine de *efecte negative* asupra existenței organizației, unele dintre ele fiind: alterarea credibilității și legitimității organizației, schimbarea sensului misiunii strategice în percepția publicului și afectarea laturii psihologice a personalului și a clienților organizației, schimbând chiar și cultura organizațională (Chiciudean și Țoneș. 2002: 87-88).

Atunci când diferite organizații sau chiar persoane publice sunt implicate în scandaluri, publicul se îndoiește de faptul că acestea sunt demne de încredere, supunându-le unei observații mai atente, iar acest lucru conduce la afectarea legitimității lor. În ceea ce privește schimbarea sensului misiunii strategice, odată făcute publice dezastrele provocate de criză, publicul are tendința de a asocia acele dezastre cu misiunea organizației. De pildă, în cazul companiei Johnson & Johnson efectele crizei produse de medicamentul Tylenol, care înainte era asociat cu anumite cuvinte, precum: „sănătate", „viață", au făcut ca, în urma crizei, oamenii să asocieze medicamentul cu „tragedie" și „moarte".

Imaginea organizației nu este un dat de la natură, ea se formează în timp,

prin comportamentul organizației în societatea din care face parte și prin mesajele pe care ea le transmite publicului și, odată creată, se menține cu mari eforturi. *Criza de imagine* afectează în mod profund organizația, iar dacă nu sunt redresate la timp cauzele care au provocat situația de criză, imaginea organizației ar putea rămâne alterată pe toată durata existenței sale

2. Gestiunea crizei

După cum am precizat mai sus, efectele crizei de imagine sunt multiple și afectează organizația pentru o lungă perioadă de timp, iar în unele cazuri pentru totdeauna și tocmai din acest motiv este important ca în orice organizație să existe o echipă care să prevină situațiile de criză și să planifice anumite strategii menite să protejeze imaginea organizației în rândul publicului și să diminueze efectele provocate de criză.

Joe Marconi precizează că, de regulă, există trei etape principale ale gestionării crizelor, și anume: *perioada de dinaintea apariției crizelor*, *perioada din timpul crizelor* și *perioada de după ce aceasta dispare* (2009: 277), iar alți autori precum Ion Chiciudean și Valeriu Țoneș sunt de părere că, atunci când vine vorba de gestionarea unei crize, în general, sunt parcurse cel puțin următoarele cinci etape: *semnalizare/detecție, pregătire/prevenire, gestionare criză, reducerea/limitarea daunelor* produse de criză și etapa *de recuperare/ refacere* (2002: 45).

În încercarea de prevenire a situațiilor de criză, s-a dezvoltat *managementul problemelor* (*issues manaegment*) care, din perspectiva lui Ronald Smith, reprezintă un proces de monitorizare și evaluare a informațiilor, prin intermediul căruia organizațiile încearcă să anticipeze problemele emergente și să le rezolve înainte ca ele să scape de sub control și să se transforme în crize (2005: 21). În acest sens, *managementul problemelor* reprezintă o modalitate eficientă, prin intermediul căreia organizația poate interacționa cu publicurile sale și, în același timp, poate să minimizeze impactul negativ pe care eventualele probleme le-ar putea avea asupra sa.

Datorită faptului că *managementul problemelor* este folosit pentru a detecta eventuale problemele și pentru a evita transformarea acestora în situații de criză, acest proces implică folosirea unor *strategii de comunicare proactive* care, după cum precizează Cristina Coman, trebuie să vină în întâmpinarea așteptărilor societății și să faciliteze comunicarea între organizație și publicurile sale, atenuând percepția negativă a publicului în cazul apariției crizei (2009: 145). Așadar, în timpul acestui proces, specialiștii care se ocupă de *managementul problemelor* trebuie să mențină o comunicare permanentă cu publicul organizației prin mai multe mijloace, trebuie să aducă la cunoștința opiniei publice felul în care organizația contribuie la dezvoltarea industriei și la binele comunității și, nu în ultimul rând, trebuie să asculte părerea publicului, încercând să-l determine să susțină organizația și să aibă încredere în ceea ce face.

Dacă toate aceste încercări de rezolvare a problemelor și de prevenire a

crizei nu funcționează, iar situația scapă de sub control, *managementul problemelor* devine acum *managementul crizei*. Din perspectiva autorilor din literatura de specialitate, *managementul crizei* reprezintă un proces care cuprinde acțiuni planificate și coordonate, pe care organizațiile le folosesc pentru a răspunde la situațiile de criză într-un timp util și într-un mod eficient (Butterick. 2011: 61). Alfel spus, *prin managementul crizei* organizațiile își iau toate măsurile necesare pentru a încerca să stopeze eventualele situații de criză și pentru a le face față cu succes în cazul în care apar și și se dezvoltă. *Managementul crizei* are o importanță majoră în viața oricărei organizații, iar din acest motiv, pentru ca echipa de criză să poată funcționa în mod corect, ea trebuie să fie alcătuită din membri care provin din sectoare diferite ale organizației, precum și din domeniul Relațiilor Publice, iar specialiștii acestui ultim sector au un rol primordial în gestionarea situațiilor de criză, mai ales în comunicarea cu mass-media pe timp de criză și în refacerea imaginii organizației după ce criza a trecut.

În legătură cu echipa de criză, Doug Newsom și Bob Carrell sunt de părere că, membrii acestei echipe trebuie să fie capabili să se ocupe de gestionarea situațiilor de criză, astfel încât organizația să-și poată continua activitatea cât mai aproape de normal, iar în acest sens, factorii decizionali din organizație trebuie să fie implicați cât mai puțin pentru a nu induce în rândul publicului ideea că situația respectivă este atât de gravă, încât este nevoie de toată lumea pentru a putea fi rezolvată(2004: 465).

Datorită faptului că trăim într-o societate în care informațiile circulă mai repede ca oricând, iar puterea Internetului este nemărginită, situațiile de criză se răspândesc instantaneu, iar din acest motiv, managementul crizei a devenit o activitate mult mai dificil de întreprins. Prin urmare, odată declanșată o situație de criza cauzată de mediul online, cei afectați de aceasta strebuie să fie conștienți de faptul că informațiile se răspândesc foarte repede, ajungând la urechile tuturor, astfel încât, organizația sau entitatea la nivelul căreia a apărut criza este predisusă la atacuri din partea mult mai multor persoane, care își vor da cu părerea despre situația creată, postând de cele mai multe ori informații mai mult sau mai puțin adevărate.

În legătură cu acest fapt, în managementul crizei, tehnologia trebuie exploatată la maxim, profitând de numeroasele avantaje pe care aceasta le oferă. Astfel, după cum preciza și Matt Haig, încă din anul 2000, gestiunea crizei pe Internet are următoarele avantaje: audiență variată și nelimitată, posibilitatea organizării unei conferințe de presă online, înființarea unui centru media online, astfel încât jurnaliștii să fie în permanență informați pentru a nu simți nevoia să-și „umple golurile" din alte surse, distribuirea comunicatelor de presă online, prin folosirea e-mail-ului, instruirea personalului organizației, prin intermediul folosirii unei rețele de comunicare internă, dar și comunicarea în permanență cu publicul organizației, fără intervenția mass-media (2000: 134-135).

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THE COMMUNICATION OF SYMBOLIC REVELATION IN THE POETRY OF IOAN ALEXANDRU

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Abstract

This study argues in the direction to prove the thesis that the poet Ioan Alexandru claimed both the expressionist current and the Transylvanian space comes from. He considers the gift of poetry as a sacred mission because he wants to abolish the borders between the poetic and the world to be able to speak from within things. Therefore, he simplifies elements to lyrical discourse to be sacred again and give the world the message of Love and Light, as a creator Logos. Thus, his poetry is dominated by an infinite joy as Zoe Dumitrescu-Bușulenga says, who consider poetry a „sacred res" (Z. Dumitrescu Bușulenga, 1981, p. 11). From this perspective, we analyze the poetry of Ioan Alexandru in the light of religious symbolism. Among the symbols, we noticed favorite poet: Butterflies, pelican, pearl, sea, even music - pure ethereal status symbol, the boat; but other: Wall, spiders, the eagle as a symbol of contemplation, but also wedding, vines, lily. However, a central place is wilderness. The question is wilderness, „the priest words" one identifies with „a celestial parchment/ extended between Source and Sea" because we are a receptacle for „the great mysteries of life."

Conclusion: Ioan Alexandru is the poet of revelation. He is aware of his mission creator of a new poetic language that is communicated to us through effort and sacrifice, as stated in the poem „Testimony": „My speech, speech sacred parental/ slow I move through your fields." Issued fleeting existence, the word will name being-essence and the language will be „being home" by which it is communicated. Being the bearer of a message prophetic poet reveals it to us through divine love that allows the act of communication „from the beginning, the worlds on/ is it that asked not know/ How it continually sinks/ kingdom after-kingdom".

Also, through symbols and metaphors his work conveys deep feelings in his rise to divine knowledge to understand things in their pure essence. Crossing the desert, the poet communicates to us through divine revelation flows from the Light of Love.

Key words: Communication literary, message, revelation, symbols, wilderness.

1. Introduction

Ioan Alexandru claimed in poetry blagian spirit of space, the so-called aesthetic ugliness specific Arghezi`s poetry, but also bacovian universe with terrifying obsession with the material world. Regarding the poetic world of Ioan Alexandru, literary critic Ion Pop says: „The world of Alexandru constinuis to be

fueled by rural spirituality….except that…the village he is no longer a mythical geography in relation to the tragic liberating modern existence, but undergoes a cosmic destiny integrator undifferentiated blood admitting coexistence tragic and contemplative destiny" (I. Pop apud Itu Iustina, 1994, p. 208). Restless and prophetic Ioan Alexandru offers poetry to lyricism reflective tone serious, often open for fabulous dream, tend enciphers and ambiguie text lyrical achieved through a process of metaphors gives lyrical originality discourse in which everything is subject meditation philosophical poetry in the author's conception is „an act of knowledge of the universe" (I. Pop apud Itu Iustina, 1994, p. 208). From the position of a demiurge poet skillfully wields the power of words, „hull sluices elements, it" offends „in their natural originality, leaving them deformed and pure" because it „feels" and „sees" their fabulous germination (Al. Piru, 1975, p. 358).

In his poetic creation, Ioan Alexandru recovered with varied themes as a starting point: a return to tradition, rustic and pastoral universe, life, death, birth, national history, Patria marked the archaic civilization and heroism during anonym -, the primary attraction, the return to origins. He also leverages the native myths and mysteries of natural things, the essence of things, knowledge, ethical reflection communication with nature and spirituality revelation of creation (Popescu, 2001; Popescu, 2002). In this sense, the poet uses artistic modalities specific lyricism pensive, anxious, pathetic, a mixture of real and fabulous, an ambigue image, solemnly, seriously, showing a tendency toward enciphers by symbol, setting an animism folk-ended philosophical. Returning to force words of poetry and posters man of the Word, the Logos notices unexpected force of words that reveals its existence „mysterious creature"; the poet thus remains a priest of words that are sacred because of their demiurgic a „dumb founder of a world beyond Destruction" (M.G. Păun, 2002, p. 18). Possessed by „unknown horizons miss" and obsessed inaccessible poet surrenders himself with relish each moment, his ideas have wings, floating Vulturești to great heights, as he says in the poem „Self-portrait": „Why do I feel I did, every day/ Defeated by a joy almost understood us (...) That kneel in front of everyone who frantically/ And I'm ready to sacrifice every moment / That from now I'm not afraid of anyone sword/ And in every idea of mine is a wing [...] And I do not understand than it is given/ distils pace this troubling time" (Ioan Alexandru, Self-portrait).

2. Ioan Alexandru – The poet of mystical revelation

Modern mentality finds no counterpart in symbolism because generally man is reluctant to what they do not understand. According to Rene Guénon: "Symbolim is the means best suited submissions higher truths of religious and metaphysical nature, which rejects modern spirit and neglect" (R. Guénon, 1997, p. 13). Philosopher Barkeley was not wrong when he said that the world is "the language through which the Infinite Spirit speaks spirits finished", but he was wrong thinking that this language is not only a language of signs arbitration, while in reality nothing is random because any significance has based on the agreement between the sign

and the thing signified. Therefore Adam was able to name all living beings, because God had given their knowledge of nature according to Genesis 2: 19-20, and all the old traditions teach us that the true name of a being forms a whole with its nature or with its own essence (R. Guénon, 1997, p. 13). By symbol, namely the words symbol, Ioan Alexandru aims to capture the most subtle nuances of inner life. His poetry breathes a hermetic air, resulting in allusive fund that supports: butterflies, pelican, pearl, rose, carnation, snake, bridegroom:

§ *Butterflies* - symbol of „weightlessness is hurrying toward death in the bright flame of a candle, and people to perdition, but also are a symbol of the Resurrection, the release coating soul of the flesh." For the poet trip it is important that everyone starts after emerging from the chrysalis of his body (Chevalier, J. & Gherbrant, A., 1995, p. 50)

§*Pelican* - capitalizes Christian iconography as a symbol of Christ, namely a figure of his sacrifice and resurrection of Lazarus. Thus the poet recovered text St. Scriptures and what Silesius says: „Wake up Christian and see our Pelican're sprinkles his blood and water from His heart if you get it right .... you'll be instantly live and healthy" (Chevalier, J. & Gherbrant, A., 1995, p. 50).

§ *Perla* - serves as a mystic center. It symbolizes the sublimation of instincts, the spirit of the matter, the transfiguration of the elements, the bright end of evolution. It is the attribute of angelic perfection, not bestowed, but acquired through a transformation. She is white, pure, rare and precious because it embodies the kindom of heaven (according to The Gospel of Matthew, 13, 45-46) and (Chevalier, J. & Gherbrant, A. 1995, p. 50).

§ *Rose* - is both the symbol of Christ's wounds and blood drop symbol or chalice that dropped them. He is regarded the mystical symbol of St. Virgin or Christ who had sealed the soul (I. Pop, 1973).

§ *Bridegroom* - is also taken from the biblical background. Ioan Alexandru is on the trail of the Bridegroom as a symbol of the spirit necessary to unify the world (Eugen Simion, 1965, p. 336).

§ *The snake* is a symbol of cunning, evil forces, but has cleverness.

All these symbols are „nodal points in thickness woven poems and raise the question of an initiation" into the hidden meaning extracted from the same biblical symbol (P. Poantă, 1973, p. 112).

Ioan Alexandru communicates his emotions through the elements: *the sea*, for example. Meeting with the sea is actually on a deeper emotional level meeting with adolescence. Looking for her, the poet goes after her during the night after „shots and wings" the day after „Roads and arrows." Feeling the sea is essentially a vibrant hymn of awakening the senses, leaving a world of (childhood), and entering another, dominated by turbulent passions. The individual acquires a sense of time and space now. The Sea gives the feeling of solemn vastness and sustainability moving so bewildering that the impression is so unbalanced passions (Chevalier, J. & Gherbrant, A., 1995, p. 198): "I now have such strong feelings/ that I walk into a bar" the poet confesses.

On the other hand, the search and the orientation of the poet output resembles the way Jews from Egypt that was moved on by „a bright cloud" and night „a pillar of fire", a journey that ends with the miraculous crossing of the Red Sea. According to Petru Poanță, at Ioan Alexandru „seas have skeletons fabulous universe is seen as an enormous udder milk" flowing with milk „the abundance of the symbol, the word of knowledge, the immortality" (Chevalier, J. & Gherbrant, A., 1995, p. 198).

And the music proliferates elementary as a pure ethereal state: „On the edge of spores playing music monthly/ balling my eardrums burst sensual/ night in their wanderings./ The white flocks stick my chest/ He put down roots directly into the threads of his beard" Eros who „unites opposites and pushes all mankind to achieve the act" notes Al. Piru, at Ioan Alexandru has the dimensions of a cosmogony, violent and pure (Al. Piru, 1975, p. 364): "Double stars in the sky, colossi teens blue/ careless waste, shining blinding, so pure embrace the mystery./ The Same axis first it takes the same sleep is pushing through goals uninterrupted / star boy, bundle of long emulsions/ launches toward the star sidereal girl/ Maree drawn from stellar love/ And so, as the dream girl dresses up with a veil".

It is original parable between man and horse (aging when man enters the era of youth, without being cut off the merit of being clairvoyant) or between man and rock („beast" turning down unchanged regardless of the fate of Sisyphus). More interesting is the image of the man exhausted by work like cattle, complaining and stepmother provided as a Messiah without hope of salvation: „When it's cold and sleep in the manger babe/ the frost unveiled new born of the virgin's womb/ Her friends are coming with their breath steaming / In the dark, sacred beast/ And go slowly on my manger/ and get warm and I then/ I face down/ buried in the rain and sweaty cry/ and no one knows, not even me, Why do not age like crying" (I. Alexandru).

The journey that I mentioned at the beginning the poet gives him the opportunity to capitalize on another symbol: boat. This, in the Christian tradition - Noah's Noe- looming Church: „It is a pleasure, said Pascal, you're on a boat rocked by storm when you're sure it will not sink." Other times Ioan Alexandru entitles his poems using symbols: Wall, Spiders. he also recovered in his poems: the eagle as a symbol of contemplation, but also wedding, vines, lily, words we communicate and this time amid the Bible because, in his view, the last sense of poetry to be able to identify with absolute (Ionescu, 2014).

The literary critic Al. Piru believes that the volume „Customs Desert" (1969) „seeks not only a regeneration of the springs, and technique. The reason is borrowed unique collection of Greek popular book, „Air borders" published after century -XVI from Bibliotheque Nationale of Paris. Referring to the famous hagiography, appearing in Acta Sanctorum, Huizinga in „Twilight of the Middle Ages" believes that it is the source to express the unease modern soul to death, seen as a rising „en plein voyage du fou" as he served of Dante:

„I feel ... I'm behold shower/ ship under me horrified run/ get, ajund I/

first hear below me water flowing/ waves are lying and see thousands of stars/ and the sea is blue and fire/ and thousands of choirs angels surrounding MoU singing/ Stretched out on a flood of wings/ I start my ascension through the air customs/ there remains a great look how/ there people, there 's a hermitage/ A mother, a spring sadly earth/ And look there a genius and a sun/ and look here is death and the early down".

Pergament (Strechie, 2013) heavenly spread between spring and sea *space of the desert* put both the problem of alienation primordiality and recover it, because underneath rivers flowing though drowned, „full of mystery and waiver" - before them not only a continuous design temporality of the essence originating „Submits as if stand / and flowing as they arise in itself" (I. Pop, 1973, p. 213).

According to Al. Piru „meant poet is like loving the wilderness (life) and sacrificing themselves in it, so point out the cores birth of new universes, „the poet entrusted/ Wilderness to love and traverse/ founding in customs/ blue by a fire stone „ (Al. Piru,1975, p. 365).

C. Hristu on wilderness and the „selection of choice" believes that it symbolizes „thirst for knowledge, unfulfilled, we descend into empire wise resignation. Is there something of the greatness of the mystery of death attitude towards Miorița „disarming waiver to enter the absurd, but still generating unease" (C. Hristu, 1972, p. 23, also Craciun, 2003). Also, Alexandru, Ioan Pop remark to „balance serenely on a background of a tragic" in which „violent metaforismul is replaced by the expression almost nude, who gets poetic virtue but the prospect of a general metaphor: Wilderness".

Regarding the meaning of *Desert* poet is not explicit. She can identify with life and death, the fate of the poet or his place of purification and spiritualization (Bogdan, 2005; Bogdan, 2016). Pop decodes the symbol wilderness with „a way of being not" „a beginning inside" when „the gates of reality outside seem locked" and believes that poetry „Customs Desert" offers a picture of nothingness matter of a cataclysm universally but also rises to a purified territory of „aesthetic contemplation" (I. Pop, 1973, p. 214).

At Ioan Alexandru contemplative images have an apocalyptic force unsuspected or magnitude. In this direcrion the literary critic Pop says that the „world blind" black sequins „kneel heavy and giants over the towers of the first peoples", „birds have grown larger than the earth," „ghosts walk there, there in waves orbotoare" crows eat „grains lights, the stars behind coagulates huge worlds cracked", „primary sources were loose and flowing lights demiurge" (I. Pop, 1973, p. 213). Between poem „Customs wilderness" and „Memento mori" by Mihai Eminescu is a similarity in terms of „grandeur visionary extinguish lights": „The world seems to stagnate in an eternal twelve o'clock searing, butterflies are drawn in the sands of the arid leaving a „plateau imesn calcined" and „hieratic gesture freezes human space forever" (I. Pop, 1973, p. 213):

„So long winds flow/ so long do not know me/ In heaven and earth - I disappeared/ The high waves abroad./ Angels took me forgetting me back/ On a

desert island are great/ Crying and it is night and I am empty/ and the sky has left a candle/ Snakes emerged from deep/ hiss talk to us understood / kneeling and praying I am a prince/ and around me it is a bunch of brides./ Only mine is missing and again lonely/ I cry incessantly lit/ and kept crying sky/ and I'm buried in a coffin of tears by the sea „ (I. Alexandru, *Via Dolorosa*).

Wilderness Ioan Alexandru has something of „Der Ister" of Holderin. It „works together with growth / kneading all that he could return / unhindered stream spring" also river German poet who „seems always that goes back (...) signifying that journey site (native)", „unit stay and travel", „road that remains preserved to the previous site instead of later" (Otto Pőggler, 1967, pp. 300-301).

3. Conclusion

The originality of Ioan Alexandru springing clear from the beginning again „at the wilderness" and that word is issued by a hymn constraints of the Logos mayor. Thus, specifically human reality escapes from the „oversimplification" that allows a spiritual ascension. Therefore, issued by the fleeting existence, the word will name being-essence and the language will be „being home" by which it is communicated. Being the bearer of a message prophetic poet reveals it to us through divine love that allows the act of communication „from the beginning, the worlds on/ is it that asked not know/ How it continually sinks/ kingdom after-kingdom" (Customs wilderness).

The word on the Victoria vacuum allows it to word a new beginning and everything finds its source in Holderin. That sen und Lihtung - and science of ilumination- symbolizes poet posture even provided a „wielder of words" Care and a corresponding verse: „Vox clamando in deserto e". And also between „Patria poet" and what it says Antoine de Saint-Exupéry in *Citadel* „L'Amour de tours qui dominent les sables" (Antoine de Saint-Exupéry, 2013).

Communication mystical revelation and how to overcome the feeling of desolation allow us to state that Ioan Alexandru is a poet of Revelation.

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EXCHANGE RATES REGIMES USED BY STATES IN TRANSITION THROUGH EUROZONE

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Abstract

Exchange rate is the most important tool, used by the Authority of a state, in the international commercial transactions. So, it is vital to establish the better manner of calculation this rate, to improve the economic development of the state.

The foreign exchange regime consists of all the rules which are applied in obtaining and using the currency. The tipology of the foreign exchange regimes highlights three categorie: the regimes based on fixed exchange rates; the regimes based on floating exchange rates; the intermediate regimes. The researching methodology is, on one hand, qualitative and, on the other hand, quantitative method, observing the definitions of the principal therms used in the exchange rates field, combined with a classification of the exchange rate and the regimes based on it (viewed from an annalyse of speciality litterature) and highlighting the history and the area of use of different type of regimes, in the states in transition to Euro Zone.

Keywords: currency, exchange rate, regimes, fixed, floating, Monetary Council, Euro Zone

1. OBIECTIVE

Obiectivele prezentului studiu sunt reprezentate prin intermediul literaturii de specialitate, este vizată realizarea unei distincții clare, între diversele tipuri de regimuri valutare, existente în statele membre ale UE; relevarea celui mai performant regim de curs de schimb, aplicabil, în prezent, pentru a pune în evidență, bunele practice, în sfera politicii monetare; desprinderea de bune practice, pe tema regimurilor cursului de schimb, ce pot fi aplicate, în toate statele din categoria țărilor în tranziție, către zona euro.

2. INTRODUCERE

Cursul de schimb valutar poate fi definit, conform, înțelesului, pe care fiecare parte componente a termenului compus, îl are în DEX, ca acea direcție ce este urmată, în cadrul procesului de schimb monedă națională- monedă străină.

Cursul de schimb sau cursul valutar, așa cum este acesta denumit, în literatura de specialitate, reprezintă prețul pe care îl are, o unitate monetară, element constitutiv al monedei unui stat, exprimat în unități monetare ale altei țări (Bostan, Avram & Filimon, 2010; Avram & Avram, 2012; Ștefănescu & Tănase, 2016). Luând în calcul tipul de cotație ce face legătura între cele două

monede participante la raportul de schimb, se poate conferi o altă definiție a cursului de schimb, ce îl clasifică în două categorii, după modalitatea de oscilație a acestuia: fix- menținut la același nivel, prin acordul pe care, două state, îl au, în cadrul politicii monetare (exemplul cel mai concludent, în acest sens, este constituit de etalonul aur, din anul 1850) sau flexibil - țările convin ca, în baza cererii și a ofertei din tranzacțiile comerciale internațional, cursul să oscileze. De regulă, în comerțul extern, cursul valutar este fluctuant, însă, între limite minime și maxime strict fixate de autoritățile în domeniul monetar.

De asemenea, în literatura de specialitate, există două cursuri de schimb principale (în funcție de autoritatea ce stabilește cursul valutar):

- *Un curs de schimb oficial*. Acesta este stabilit în fiecare zi, de către Banca Națională, pe baza raportului existent pe piață, între cererea și oferta de valute. Baza obiectivă de stabilire a nivelului cursului vaalutar, este constituită de raportul dintre puterea de cumpărare a celor două valute în țările luate în considerare.
- *Un curs de piață*, ce este publicat cu două mărimi, respectiv: *cotația BID și cotația ASK*.

Cotația BID reprezintă prețul cererii pe piață, din punct de vedere al intermediarului care realizează o tranzacție valutară (intermediarul sau *market maker*-ul – reprezentat, deseori, de o casă de schimb, ghișeul unei bănci). Cotația BID este cunoscută drept *curs de cumpărare*.

Cotația ASK constituie prețul ofertei pe piață, din punct de vedere al intermediarului care efectuează tranzacția în domeniul valutar. De aceea, cotația ASK este cunoscută ca și *curs de vânzare*.

Cotațiile BID și ASK sunt afișate, la începutul zilei și pot fi modificate de bănci în funcție de doi factori importanți: evoluția pieței valutare și interesul de vanzare-cumpărare din ziua respectivă.

Există o clasificare a cursului de schimb, în funcție de termenul de plată, întâlnindu-se în literature de specialitate: cursul SPOT și la polul opus se situează, cursul FORWARD.

Cursul la vedere, denumit anterior, curs SPOT, este cursul zilei în cursul căreia este încheiată tranzacția de vânzare-cumpărare de valută. La acest curs, se lichidează tranzacția, în aceeași zi sau în cel mult 48 de ore, când se procedează la predarea-primirea efectivă a sumelor cuvenite.

Cursul la termen, denumit curs FORWARD, este cursul utilizat în cadrul tranzactiilor de valută care prevăd livrarea valutei și primirea contravalorii ei pe bază de negociere pentru o operație la termen. Acest curs de schimb se stabilește în ziua încheierii tranzacției ca un preț preconizat a se realiza. Fiind un preț trecut în contract, el se respectă indiferent de nivelul cursului zilei de lichidare.

3. REGIMURI DE CURS DE SCHIMB

Regimul valutar e un ansamblu de reguli privind obținerea și folosirea valutei. Acesta poate fi: bazat pe cursuri valutare fixe (cursul rămâne constant

sau variază în jurul unor benzi de variație, neținând seama de alte variabile macroeconomice); bazat pe cursuri flotante; intermediar.

3.1. Regimuri bazate pe cursuri fixe (hard pegs regimes)

Cursul fix presupune fixarea cursului în raport cu alte monede sau cu un etalon (cum a fost în cazul Bretton Woods, aurul).

Ca și avantaje ale fixării cursului, avem în vedere următoarele:

- riscul asociat realizării tranzacțiilor comerciale și investiționale este apreciat ca scăzut.
- finanțarea internațională are costuri mai scăzute.
- de asemenea, se micșorează rata dobânzii internă și rata inflației (printr-o stabilitate monetară și valutară crescută).

Ca orice variabilă, există și numeroase imperfecțiuni ale sale, ce rezultă mai ales în timpul crizelor financiare, când cresc costurile pentru ajustare macroeconomică și astfel scade și credibilitatea Băncii Centrale. În plus, e manifestată și o dependență crescută a politicii monetare față de a țării ancoră. Apar și numeroase șocuri externe, ce presupun costuri ridicate de menținere a cursului.

3.1.1. Regim valutar bazat pe moneda altui emitent

Aceasta presupune inexistența capacității Băncii Centrale de a pune în circulație propria monedă, din cauza costurilor ridicate de emisiune, a lipsei instrumentelor necesare pentru păstrarea puterii de cumpărare și nu în ultimul rând, a gradului scăzut de dezvoltare economică (Stefănescu, Turlea, Pitulice & Tudorache, 2016; Avram Greti, Avram & Avram, 2016; Avram, Avram & Avram, 2016).

Este cazul țărilor ce nu au o monedă oficială și se bazează în cadrul pieței pe moneda altui stat. Dar, acest lucru, apare cu impedimentul renunțării la independența monetară internă (Sandu, 2016).

3.1.2. Regim valutar bazat pe uniune monetară

Este exemplul dat de către Uniunea Europeană, care definește o relație fixă înte moneda oficială, euro și moneda țărilor ce au aderat. Se manifestă convertibilitatea și transferabilitatea pentru monedele membrelor și constituirea unor reglementări valutare comune și a unor rezerve valutare în moneda unică, gestionate la nivel central.

3.1.3. Consiliul Monetar

Reprezintă un regim ce presupune un curs de schimb fix pentru moneda națională în raport cu o valută forte de pe piața internațională, ce devine, în același timp și element de rezervă.

Modificarea ratei cursului valutar e posibilă doar în cazul apariției unui excedent de valută neacoperit de moneda națională. De asemenea, se elimină

atribuțiile esențiale ale băncii naționale, referindu-ne aici la control și emisiune de monedă și funcția de împrumutător în cazuri excepționale.

4.1. Regimuri bazate pe cursuri flotante

4.1.1. Flotarea liberă

Reprezintă contrarul cursului fix, implicând absența oricărei intervenții din partea Băncii Centrale și a statului în mecanismul cursului valutar.

Statul își limitează acțiunea doar la supravegherea operațiunilor și la controlul instituțiilor de pe piața valutară (Iacob, Ionescu & Avram, 2011; Dumitru, Guse, Feleaga, Mangiuc & Feldioreanu, 2015).

Cursul se formează pe piața interbancară, devalorizarea este considerată a fi efect direct al schimbării raportului dintre cererea și oferta de valută.

Singura condiție pentru acest regim presupune un grad ridicat de dezvoltare economică pentru a putea acoperi dezechilibrele temporare din balanța de plăți.

Ca orice regim valutar, acesta are atât avantaje, cât și dezavantaje. Printre avantaje se numără: autonomia și independența politicii monetare și a Băncii Centrale și de asemenea, are impact de neutralizare a șocurilor externe și al efectelor inflației asupra exporturilor (Voinea, 2015; Vlăduțescu, Siminică & Dumitru, 2015).

Există, însă , mai multe dezavantaje ale flotării libere, care se regăsesc printre următoarele: lipsa unei discipline a Băncii Centrale; există efecte destabilizatoare asupra speculațiilor pe piața valutară și în cele din urmă, poate cel mai important este că fluxurile comerciale internaționale sunt descurajate.

4.1.2. Flotarea administrat (controlată)

Acest regim valutar se află între cursul fix și flotarea liberă, care implică intervenția Băncii Centrale pe anumite perioade de timp. Intervenția pe piața valutară presupune vânzarea de valută la devalorizarea monedei naționale și cumpărarea de valută la o apreciere bruscă a acesteia, ce ar conduce la dezechilibre. Totodată, se necesită resurse ridicate în conturile Băncii pentru a putea administra cursul. Lipsa resurselor, transformă regimul în flotare liberă (Feleagă & Feleagă, 2016; Dumitru, Motoi & Curelaru, 2016; Guluta & Rusu, 2016).

Banca Centrală temperează evoluția cursului și evită intrarea economiei intr-o criză îndelungată. Se reduce deci, amplitudinea evoluției ratei de schimb, încercându-se distribuția în timp a devalorizării propriei monede. Totodată, strategia manifestă rezistență și la presiunile speculative de curs.

Totuși, este foarte important, ca la flotarea administrată să se țină seama de 3 condiții esențiale: existența unor resurse suficiente pentru administrarea cursului; stabilirea momentului oportun al intervenției; calcularea exactă a cantității de valută ce ar trebui aruncată pe piață.

5. REGIMURI INTERMEDIARE

5. 1. Banda de variație

Aceasta implică existența unor limite: superioară si inferioară față de o rată pivot fixată. Mai este numită și „șarpele monetar", ce a stat la baza apariției și dezvoltării Sistemului Monetar European.

Rata pivot este rata de schimb dintre moneda națională și o altă valută, care e stabilită pe o perioadă mare de timp. Banca Centrală stabilește rata, banda de variație și îi revin și eforturile de a păstra cursul în interiorul benzii. Se procedează la vânzarea sau cumpărarea de valută când se ating limitele intervalului stabilit.

Dezavantajul este însă, că necesită resurse de intervenție multe mai mari decât la flotarea administrată. Are ca variante ale sale următoarele 3 tipuri: banda de variație ajustabilă, banda lărgită și banda oblică (Crăciun, 2010; Basic, 2014; Domović, 2015; Paget, Daniell, Rubio Zuazo & Barreteau, 2016).

Banda ajustabilă are avantaje în ceea ce privește folosirea pentru stabilitate macroeconomică, ajustări structurale. Se face ancorarea benzii de variație de o altă deviză convertibilă sau de un coș valutar. Este o bandă cu rată pivot ajustabilă în timp, în funcție de care se stabilesc marje de variație.

Banca Centrală stabilește pivotul, marja de variație și mecanismul de ajustare periodică, folosind diferențialul de dobândă, de inflație sau mai mulți factori ce influențează cursul.

Banda oblică implică ajustarea marjelor față de un pivot fix. Se pornește cu o marjă de variație mare (±15% sau ± 9%), iar pe măsură ce economia e restructurată, valoarea e redusă.

5. 2. Ancora fixă și ajustabilă

Ancora fixă implică un curs valutar fix în raport cu altă monedă sau coș valutar. Este denumită și soft peg.

Ancora ajustabilă modifică în mod periodic și repetat cursul de schimb după o metodologie ce ține cont de diferențialul de inflație sau de rata dobânzii. Moneda ancoră este cea a celui mai important partener comercial sau investițional. Moneda ancoră are curs fix doar față de moneda ancoră și variabil în raport cu celelalte devize. Mai este cunoscută și precum crawling peg.

5.3. Regimul valutar mixt

Acesta folosește o rată fixă pentru operațiunile aferente contului de capital și financiar din balanța de plăți externe și o rată flotantă pentru operațiile efectuate în contul curent. Nu se permite efectuarea de operațiuni valutare între segmentele pieței.

Regimul mixt presupune convertibilitate parțială a monedei naționale și adițional, control strict al transferurilor de capital. Operațiunile de cont curent au curs flotant, iar cele de cont de capital au curs fix.

6. REGIMURI DE CURS DE SCHIMB ALE STATELOR ÎN TRANZIȚIE CĂTRE ZONA EURO

Problemele legate de cursul de schimb au măcinat țările din Europa Centrală și de Est, încă din anii 1990, pentru că, regimul adoptat trebuie să concorde cu programele de stabilizare macroeconomică adoptate de fiecare dintre țările din zonă.

Trebuie realizată și delimitarea clară a zonei de tranziție către Zona Euro. Aceasta cuprinde două categorii principale de state:

- care au adoptat clauza"OPT-OUT", referindu-ne, aici, la țări, care deși sunt în UE și au majoritatea politicilor comune la nivel comunitar, au dreptul de a nu prelua niciodată euro: Danemarca, Marea Britanie și Suedia, state, care au așa numita derogare;
- care sunt incluse în condiția"NO OPT OUT", din această categorie, făcând parte, următoarele: Cehia, Croația, Ungaria, Polonia, Bulgaria și România.

Multe țări au adoptat un regim de curs fix, în lupta lor împotriva inflației: când presiunile inflaționiste se diminuează, atingând un nivel de o cifră, se pun în aplicare cursuri mai flexibile.

Totodată, tipul de curs de schimb dintr-o țară depinde și de strategia pusă în joc pentru a îndeplini convergența nominală și reală (Ali Taha, Sirková & Ferencová, 2016). În tranziția către Uniunea Economică și Monetară, la Mecanismul ratelor de schimb ERM2, unul dintre criteriile de convergență (de la Maastricht), este cel referitor la stabilitatea cursului valutar (ce permite variații ale monedei naționale față de euro de cel mult ±15%). Se adoptă regimuri de jure sau de facto la fel ca și independența Băncii Centrale Europene (de jure sau de facto) (Vlăduțescu, Siminică & Dumitru, 2015; Smoląg, Ślusarczyk & Kot, 2016). În realitate, se întalnesc mai multe cazuri de regimuri intermediare, inspirate de frica de flotare (când există un regim valutar mai flexibil de jure decât de facto) sau de frica de ancore (regim mai fix de jure decât de facto). De asemenea, trebuie îndeplinite anumite criterii nominale pentru intrarea în ERM2, care au valori de referință, înregistrate pe o perioadă de timp stabilită în cele mai performante state:

- rata inflației de 1%;
- deficitul, calculat ca pondere din PIB, în fiecare an;
- cursul valutar ce are ca perioadă de referință, intervalul 24 aprilie 2008- 23 aprilie 2010;
- ratele dobânzii pe termen mediu de 6%.

Criteriile reale luate în calcul pentru pătrunderea în ERM2 sunt următoarele:

- nivelul PIB pe locuitor în paritatea puterii de cumpărare standard (PPS);
- gradul de deschidere economică: (importuri + exporturi supra PIB);
- ponderea comerțului cu Uniunea Europeană în totalul comerțului exterior.

Există 3 etape de regimuri de curs de schimb pentru țările în tranziție către zona euro (pentru țările din Europa Centrală și de Est):

1) Perioada din intervalul 1989-1994, presupune regimurile:

- curs fix în Ungaria, Polonia și Slovacia;
- curs flotant în Bulgaria, Letonia (1992-1994), Slovenia, România (1991-1994);
- regim intermediar: Cipru.

2) Perioada 1995-2000, denumită și tranziția propriu-zisă.

- curs fix în: Bulgaria (implementarea Consiliului Monetar, din 1997), Estonia, Letonia, Malta;
- curs flotant în: Cehia (din 1997), Polonia (din 2001), România;
- regim intermediar în: Cipru, Cehia, Polonia, Ungaria.

3) Perioada după anul 2001, denumită și preaderare la Uniunea Economică și Monetară:

- curs fix în: Bulgaria, Estonia, Letonia, Malta;
- curs flotant în: Cehia, Polonia, România;
- curs intermediar în: Cipru și Ungaria.

Această etapă presupune și declanșarea participării la o nouă fază de tranziție: Mecanismul Ratelor de Schimb European (ERM2).

Începând cu anul 2005, aderă la ERM2: Cipru, Estonia, Malta, Slovenia, Slovacia, Lituania și Estonia, iar la Uniunea Monetară aderă: Cipru, Malta și Slovenia. Pe măsura trecerii timpului, zona euro se lărgește, atingând, în prezent, 19 state (Austria, Belgia, Cipru, Finlanda, Estonia, Franța, Germania, Grecia, Irlanda, Italia, Letonia, Lituania, Luxemburg, Malta, Olanda, Portugalia, Spania, Slovenia, Slovacia). La acestea, se mai adaugă și cele 4, care au încheiat acorduri monetare cu vecinii lor și care, într-o manieră mai specială,se pot include în zona euro: Andorra, Monaco, San Marino și Vatican. Până în 2005, România avea flotare controlată în raport cu euro, iar după, s-a trecut la flotare liberă (după etapa liberalizării contului de capital). Tot începând cu 2005, Bosnia și Bulgaria adoptă Consiliul Monetar, având ca ancoră euro. Aceste Consilii mai funcționează si azi.

Croația, Macedonia și Serbia au decis, ca din anul 2005, să aplice crawling peg față de euro sau așa zisa ancoră ajustabilă, considerând că acest regim valutar se potrivește cel mai bine pentru a răspunde realităților lor economice (Traistaru, & Cotoc, 2013; Siminica & Carstina, 2015; Siminica, Circiumaru & Carstina, 2016; Petrescu, 2016). Vom lua spre a face o scurtă analiză, fiecare țară în parte, din a doua categorie, prezentată în Anexa1. Regimuri de curs de schimb și alternative de politică monetară pe țări, respectiv, cele care nu pot rămâne în afara zonei euro:

- Cehia, a adoptat încă din mai 1997, regimul de flotare controlată (crawling peg). Rata de schimb este un instrument al politicii monetare, iar rata dobânzii se menține la un nivel nul de 0%, de câțiva ani. Este cunoscut, faptul că, a fost dintotdeauna o țară cu tradiție în ceea ce privește prioritatea de stabilitate a prețurilor, fiind singurul stat de la începutul perioadei interbelice, care a evitat

alunecarea în hiperinflație. Astfel, ca și alternativă monetară, se remarcă țintirea directă a ratei inflației (Basic, 2014; Voinea, 2015; Călin, 2015; Colhon, Cerban, Becheru & Teodorescu, 2016).

- In 1999, Polonia a renunțat la realizarea operațiunilor de fixing, adoptând așa numita crawling band, având ca obiectiv final tot stabilitatea prețurilor. Astfel, s-a ajuns la o politică monetară expansionistă, la deteriorarea poziției externe și la turbulențe pe piață. Totuși, în ultimii ani, a fost printre singurele țări, care au implementat cu succes țintirea inflației.

- La Ungaria, se observă o strategie constantă de țintire a inflației încă din anul 1991, iar în cazul cursului de schimb, o bandă de fluctuație de ±15%, pentru asigurarea competitivității externe. Se realiza, inițial ancorarea față de marcă, apoi, în raport cu dolarul american.

-România, înainte de anul 1990, folosea țintirea agregatelor monetare (M_2), aplicată mai bine de un deceniu, apoi s-a trecut la țintirea inflației. În anul 1990, se trece și la ancorarea convențională, față de un coș de valute, format din euro și dolar. Din 1991 până în 1996, s-a utilizat o flotare administrativă strictă. În 1997-1998, crawling peg față de dolar, părea, de departe, cea mai bună alegere, pentru ca, până, în 2000, să se ia ca referință pentru crawling peg, atât euro, cât și dolarul american, urmată până în 2003 de crawling band, față de aceleași valute forte. Se poate spune, că, din 2004 și până astăzi, Banca Națională a adoptat o flotare administrată a cursului valutar.

La începutul tranziției, Ungaria, Cehia și Polonia, foloseau o ancoră nominală, fiind bazate pe strategia de țintire a cursului valutar, un regim de curs fix, care era considerat optim pentru stabilizarea rapidă a prețurilor.

7. CONCLUZII

Fiecare regim valutar este compus dintr-o serie de elemente, ce generează, în funcție de condițiile economico-financiare existente pe piață, o influență pozitivă sau una negativă.

Numeroase state în tranziție către Zona Euro au optat pentru cursuri de schimb flexibile, pentru a scăpa de influența băncii naționale, însă această situație este foarte riscantă pentru cetățeni, când autoritatea monetară nu își poate exercita funcția în orice moment. Este adevărat că, atunci când flotarea este strâns controlată și banca intervine prea mult, statul nu are un grad de dezvoltare ridicat (cazul României și al Croației). Este totuși cert, că, în cazul aranjamentelor de tip Consiliu Monetar, lucrurile par să avanseze favorabil din punct de vedere economic. Concluzia care se desprinde din acest articol, este că, periodic, se poate modifica regimul de curs valutar, pentru identificarea celei mai potrivite variante pentru un stat, întrucât, numai punerea în aplicare, poate releva impactul modalității stabilirii cursului de schimb și al factorilor de natură internă, asupra situației economice a unei țări.

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THE COMMUNIST IDEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS IN THE PASTORAL LETTERS OF THE PATRIARCH JUSTINIAN MARINA (1948-1977)

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Abstract

The authors who have published pastoral letters in the journal Glasul Bisericii, in the communist era, were the hierarchies of Metropolitanate of Wallachia. The communist ideological elements that are found in all pastoral letters of the romanian hierarchs, published since 1948, is an area of research that has not been studied before. The object of the present research is represented by the ideological elements identified in the 63 pastoral letters published by his Beatitude the Patriarch Justinian Marina, of the Romanian Orthodox Church in the journal Glasul Bisericii in the period 1948-1976.

Keywords: Patriarch Justinian Marina, Romanian Orthodox Church, Commmunisme, Pastoral letters, Glasul Bisericii

Introducere

Subiectul pe care am încercat să îl abordăm în acest studiu, acela despre elementele ideologice comuniste care se regăsesc infiltrate în pastoralele Patriarhului Justinian Marina (1948-1977). În cercetarea noastră ne-am rezumat doar asupra pastoralelor publicate în revista *Glasul Bisericii* între anii 1948-1976, subiectul fiind unul interdisciplinar și deosebit de important pentru domeniile *Biblioteconomie*, *Teologie* și *Istorie*.

Pentru domeniul *Biblioteconomie* tema este importantă și poate fi analizată din punct de vedere al cenzurii periodicelor, determinându-se rolul pe care l-au avut aceste periodice bisericești ortodoxe pentru *Biblioteconomia românească din perioada 1945-1989*. În ceea ce privește domeniul *Teologie* problematica este una destul de sensibilă deoarece vizează o problemă actuală, care a rămas până în prezent nerezolvată, și anume*: relația dintre Biserica Ortodoxe Române și autoritățile comuniste*. Pentru domeniul *Istorie*, acest subiect este important de cercetat pentru a completa cunoștințele existente cu privire la *Istoria României în perioada comunistă*.

Ne-am rezumat la următoarele aspecte despre care credem că sunt esențiale pentru cercetarea noastră și anume: 1) *Pastorala chiriarhală – delimitare istorică și conceptuală*; 2) *Elemente ideologice comuniste din pastoralele Patriarhului Justinian Marina publicate în revista Glasul Bisericii între anii 1948-1976.*

În primul capitol, intitulat *Pastorala chiriarhală – delimitare istorică și conceptuală*, unde am încercat să facem o prezentare a conceptului de pastorală,

delimitându-l din punct de vedere istoric. Totodată am arătat încadrarea în domeniul *Teologie*, respectiva la disciplina *Omiletică*.

În capitolul al doilea am încercat să ne rezumăm asupra *elementelor ideologice comuniste din pastoralele Patriarhului Justinian Marina publicate în revista Glasul Bisericii între anii 1948-1976*, întrucât am descoperit lucruri importante pe care acesta, le-a transmis clerului și credincioșilor prin limbajul cenzurat al pastoralelor.

Motivația în alegerea temei noastre de cercetare o constituie faptul că presa bisericească, a avut o dublă cenzură, aceste publicații religioase fiind salvate și de cuvintele „patriotarde" pe care le-au scris ierarhii în pastoralele lor. Importanța și actualitatea temei de cercetare este reprezentată de faptul că subiectul se înscrie, în preocupările de cercetare la nivel național și internațional, cu privire la istoria comunismului.

Stadiul actual al cercetării este reprezentat, din nefericire, de lipsa lucrărilor științifice scrise pe acest subiect. Există în schimb diverse lucrări generale scrise despre revistele bisericești ortodoxe în perioada comunistă dintre care se pot enumera câteva mai relevante: 1) ENACHE, George. Strategii de infiltrare și atragere la colaborare a cultelor religioase elaborate de autoritățile procomuniste din România în perioada 1945-1948, cu o privire specială asupra cazului Bisericii Ortodoxe Române. În: *Caietele CNSAS*, anul I, nr. 1/2008, pp. 53-92; 2) ENACHE, George; PETCU, Adrian Nicolae. Biserica Ortodoxă Română și Securitatea. Note de lectură. În: *Totalitarism și rezistență, teroare și represiune în România comunistă*, București: Consiliul Național pentru Studierea Arhivelor Securității, 2001, pp. 108-136 (colecția Studii 1); 3) ENACHE, George. *Patriarhul Justinian și Biserica Ortodoxă Română în anii 1948-1964*. Galați: Editura Partener, 2009, 268 p. (colecția Biserica în dosarele Securității, 1); 4) GABOR, Adrian. *Studia ecclesiastica. Contribuții în domeniul Istoriei Bisericești ale profesorilor de la Facultatea de Teologie Ortodoxă din București (1881-1989)*. București: Editura Bizantină, 2003, 268 p.; 5) PĂCURARIU, Mircea (coord.). *Enciclopedia Ortodoxiei Românești*. București: Editura Institutului Biblic și de Misiune Ortodoxă, 2010, 768 p.; 6) PĂIUȘAN, Cristina; CIUCEANU, Radu. *Biserica Ortodoxă Română sub regimul comunist (1945-1958)*. Vol. I. București: Institutul Național pentru Studiul Totalitarismului, 2001, 363 p.

Lucrările cu privire la revista *Glasul Bisericii* sunt: 1) MUNTEANU, Alexandru-Armand. *Ghid bibliografic pe teme și probleme din publicațiile revistei mitropolitane Glasul Bisericii (1973-2002)*. București: Sfânta Arhiepiscopie a Bucureștilor, 2004, 267 p.

Metodologia cercetării presupune analizarea elementelor ideologice comuniste din pastoralelor publicate de Patriarhul Justinian Marina în revista *Glasul Bisericii*, în perioada 1948-1976. Ca metode de lucru am utilizat *analiza* și *interpretarea* datelor din izvoarele documentare și din bibliografia aferentă temei de cercetare.

La finalul cercetării noastre, după *Concluzii* și *Bibliografie*, am adăugat *Anexele*, care conțin un tabel cu pastoralele Patriarhului Justinian și niște fotografii ale acestuia din revista *Glasul Bisericii*.

1. *Pastorala chiriarhală* – delimitare istorică și conceptuală

Înainte de a trece la tratarea propriu-zisă a subiectului propus de noi, trebuie să facem o delimitare din punct de vedere conceptual a termenului *pastorală chiriarhală*, cunoscută generic sub numele de *pastorală* (Stan, 2008; Stan, 2010).

Din punct de vedere istoric *pastorala* își are originea „în practica veche a Bisericii din Alexandria, însușită și validată la Sinodul I Ecumenic" (Gordon, Ivan și Beldiman 2015, 402). Încă din Antichitate exista în Alexandria, după cum se cunoaște, un important centru unde știința astronomiei era la mare cinste. Patriarhul Bisericii Alexandrine avea datoria să stabilească calcularea anuală a datei Paștelui (la Sinodul I Ecumenic, care a avut loc la Niceea în 325, s-a fixat data sărbătorii Sfintelor Paști de către cei 318 sfinți părinți prezenți, după următorul calcul: prima duminică, ce urmează după luna plină care cade după echinocțiul de primăvară (aprox. 21 martie) pentru creștinii săi, iar în acest sens era trimisă o scrisoare festivă în care era transmis acest lucru și celorlalte comunități creștine.

Aceste scrisori, pe lângă data sărbătoririi Sfintelor Paști, conțineau și alte îndrumări „pastorale" (Gordon, Ivan și Beldiman 2015, 402). Printre cele mai vechi consemnări cu privire la acest gen de scrisori se numără referirile făcute de episcopul Eusebiu de Cezareea, care amintește „«epistolele festive» compuse de Dionisie, patriarh al Alexandriei (188-230)" (Gordon, Ivan și Beldiman 2015, 402).

Există mai multe temeiuri biblice și canonice care stau la baza acestui tip de scriitură. Tradiția trimiterii pastoralelor chiriarhale se înscrie în îndemnurile date de Sfântul Apostol Pavel lui Timotei, ucenicul său, ajuns ulterior episcop, care i-a spus acestuia: „Propovăduiește cuvântul, stăruiește cu timp și fără de timp, mustră ceartă, îndeamnă, cu toată îndelunga-răbdare și învățătura" (2 Timotei 4, 2); „Ia aminte la tine însuți și la învățătura ta; stăruie în ele, căci făcând aceasta te vei mântui – și pe tine, și pe cei care te ascultă" (1 Timotei 4, 16).

Întâietatea omiletică a episcopului a existat întotdeauna înaintea aceea a preotului, exprimată și la Sinodul al VI-lea Ecumenic (692), în canonul 19 Trulan: „Se cuvine ca înainte stătătorii Bisericilor să învețe în fiecare zi, și cu deosebire în duminici, întregul cler și popor, cuvintele dreptei credințe, culegând din Scriptura dumnezeiască înțelesurile și judecățile adevărurilor" (Floca 2005, 128).

Acest lucru s-a perpetuat în toate bisericile ortodoxe din lume, lucru care s-a întâmplat și la noi, în Biserica Ortodoxă Română. Astfel, în Biserica noastră primele referiri cu privire la *pastoralele chiriarhale*, în Țările Române, apar astfel: 1) în Țara Românească, este atestată pastorala cu prilejul Postului Mare, în 4 foi, trimisă de Mitropolitul Daniil (1720-1738); 2) în Moldova, Mitropolitul Gavril Calimachi (1760-1786) „a tipărit în anul 1781 o *Pastorală împotriva luxului*" (Gordon, Ivan și Beldiman 2015, 403); 3) în Ardeal, Mitropolitul Andrei Șaguna (1808-1873), fixează stilul scrisorilor pastorale.

În prezent informațiile despre pastorale se regăsesc în *Statutul pentru organizarea și funcționarea Bisericii Ortodoxe Române*, la art. 88, litera L, unde se spune că „(ierarhii) adresează scrisori pastorale clerului și credincioșilor din eparhie" (Patriarhia Română 2008, 61).

După acest parcurs istoric, dacă am încerca să definim *pastorala chiriarhală* am putea afirma că aceasta este o scrisoare circulară alcătuită de un ierarh, cu prilejul Naşterii Domnului şi al Sfintelor Paşti, şi trimise tuturor parohiilor şi mănăstirilor de sub jurisdicţia sa, spre a fi citite în ziua praznicului respectiv, în timpul Sfintei Liturghii. Din punct de vedere omiletic, *pastorala chiriarhală* nu poate fi încadrată în mod strict într-un gen omiletic (Gordon, Ivan şi Beldiman 2015, 401), fiind mai apropiată de *pareneză* (cuvântare bisericească scurtă, care se rosteşte la momente liturgice speciale) ca stil, întrucât conţine multe încurajări, îndemnuri, sfaturi etc.

Pe lângă pastorala cu ocazia Crăciunului şi Paştelui, credincioşii primesc anual şi *Pastorala* dedicată Duminicii Ortodoxiei (Prima duminică din Postul Mare), unde se vorbeşte despre cinstirea sfintelor icoane ş. a. În afară de aceste trei tipuri de pastorale mai există şi unele deosebite, trimise cu prilejul unor calamităţi, dezastre naturale, război etc.

Pastoralele din Biserica Ortodoxă Română pot fi studiate având în vedere influenţa politică „perioada interbelică, perioada comunistă şi, ultima, din 1989 până în prezent" (Gordon, Ivan şi Beldiman 2015, 404). Părintele profesor Vasile Gordon (Profesor universitar la Catedra de Omiletică şi Catehetică din cadrul Facultăţii de Teologie Ortodoxă „Justinian Patriarhul" din Bucureşti, şi conducător de doctorate pentru aceeaşi disciplină la Şcoala Doctorală a Facultăţii de Teologie Ortodoxă din Cluj) caracterizează pastoralele din perioada comunistă ca fiind „nu lipsite de conţinut doctrinar substanţial, nici de frumuseţe stilistică […] afectate totuşi de anumite mesaje «patriotice» (în fapt, patriotarde), impuse de mai-marii zilei" (Gordon, Ivan şi Beldiman 2015, 404). El încheie spunând că „tot ce se tipărea (revistele bisericeşti, n. n.) în această perioadă era supus unei cenzuri comunisto-securisto drastice" (Gordon, Ivan şi Beldiman 2015, 404).

Ca o concluzie generală putem afirma despre *pastorala chiriarhală* că aceasta reprezintă o tipologie omiletică specială, reprezentată prin nişte scrisori circulare care conţin, pe lângă învăţături dogmatice cu privire la sărbătoarea Naşterii sau a Învierii Domnului, diverse sfaturi sau îndemnuri cu privire la problemele cotidiene ale vremii.

Autorii ale căror pastorale au fost publicate în revista *Glasul Bisericii*, în perioada comunistă, sunt ierarhii din cuprinsul Mitropoliei Ungrovlahiei.

Începând cu anul 1945 şi până în anul 1953, singura pastorala chiriarhală publicată în revista *Glasul Bisericii* era aceea a Patriarhului Bisericii Ortodoxe Române.

După anul 1953, îndată după moartea dictatorului Iosif Vissarionovici Stalin care a survenit în seara zilei de 5 martie 1953, semnatarii pastoralelor chiriarhale vor fi următorii ierarhi: 1) Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh al Bisericii Ortodoxe Române; 2) Prea Sfinţitul Părinte Episcop al Eparhiei Buzăului; 3) Prea Sfinţitul Părinte Episcop al Dunării de Jos (1945-1974), respectiv Înalt Prea Sfinţitul Părinte Arhiepiscop al Tomisului şi Dunării de Jos (1975-1989). Între anii 1945-1974 titulatura oficială a ierarhului eparhiei Dunării de Jos era următoarea:

Prea Sfințitul Părinte Episcop al Dunării de Jos. Începând cu anul 1975, și până la Revoluția din 1989, titlul oficial purtat de episcopul acestei eparhii se va schimba, deoarece va fi adăugată în jurisdicția Episcopiei Dunării de Jos și Tomisul, adică județele Tulcea și Constanța. Astfel titulatura oficială pe care o va purta de acum înainte ierarhul acestei eparhii nou înființate va fi următoarea: Înalt Prea Sfințitul Părinte Arhiepiscop al Tomisului și Dunării de Jos.

Patriarhii Bisericii Ortodoxe Române, ale căror pastorale au fost transmise între anii 1945-1989, au fost în număr de patru, și anume: 1) Nicodim Munteanu (1945-1948); 2) Justinian Marina (1948-1977); 3) Justin Moisescu (1977-1986); 4) Teoctist Arăpașu (1986-1989).

Un caz aparte îl reprezintă pastoralele trimise de Sfântul Sinod al Bisericii Ortodoxe Române, care erau semnate de toți ierarhii ortodocși români, cu prilejul unor evenimente deosebite și nu numai. În această perioadă au fost trimise două pastorale, prima intitulându-se *Pastorala Sfântului Sinod, către clerul și credincioșii ortodocși și către toți creștinii din Republica Populară Română*, publicată în numărul 3 pe 1950, la paginile 3-9, iar cea de-a doua având ca titlu *Pastorală pentru pace*, care a apărut în anul 1985, în numerele 10-12, la paginile 599-602.

După anul 1952, au început să publice, pe lângă Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh, și alți doi ierarhi, titulari ai eparhiilor pe care le-am amintit mai sus.

Astfel, sub semnătura Episcopului Eparhiei Buzăului au fost tipărite mai multe pastorale de către următorii ierarhi: 1) Antim Angelescu (1945-1979) – 54 pastorale; 2) Antonie Plămădeală (1980-1981) – 4 pastorale; 3) Eftimie Luca (acesta era Episcopul Eparhiei Romanului și Hușilor, și fusese ales ca locțiitor al Episcopiei Buzăului în anul 1982 în locul episcopului Antonie Plămădeală, care a fost ales la începutul anului 1982, arhiepiscop al Sibiului și Mitropolit al Ardealului) (1982) – 1 pastorală; 4) Epifanie Norocel (1981-1989) – 13 pastorale.

Cât privește Episcopia Dunării de Jos (1945-1975), care a fost ridicată în anul 1975 la rangul de Arhiepiscopie (1975-1989), au existat mai mulți ierarhi care au publicat pastorale în numerele revistei *Glasul Bisericii*. Cu titlul de *episcop* pot fi menționați doi ierarhi și anume: 1) Chesarie Păunescu (1950-1973) – 40 pastorale; 2) Antim Nica (1973-1975) – 4 pastorale. Fiind ridicat la rangul de arhiepiscop, Antim Nica a publicat în perioada 1975-1989, un număr de 26 pastorale.

Aceștia sunt autorii pastoralelor chiriarhale care se regăsesc în numerele revistei *Glasul Bisericii*, iar noi ne vom opri atenția asupra *Elementelor ideologice comuniste din pastoralele Patriarhului Justinian Marina publicate în revista Glasul Bisericii între anii 1948-1976*.

2. Elemente ideologice comuniste din pastoralele Patriarhului Justinian Marina publicate în revista Glasul Bisericii între anii 1948-1976

Prima pastorală a Patriarhului Justinian Marina a fost dată în calitate de Mitropolit al Moldovei și locțiitor de patriarh, după moartea Patriarhului Nicodim Munteanu (27 februarie 1948). Această pastorală a fost publicată în revista *Glasul Bisericii*, în numărul 4 pe anul 1948. Primul element ideologic folosit de

acesta este ideea păcii între popoare: „popoarele au nevoie de pace, doresc pacea și o apără, știind că pacea este condiția trebuitoare și esențială care promovează progresul vieții sociale. Biserica Ortodoxă apără pacea și îndeamnă pe credincioșii ei la iubire și frățietate între oameni și între popoare” (Marina 1948, 5). Această primă pastorală se încheie cu îndemnul patriotard al muncii agricole și industriale: „Lipsa și sărăcia lăsate de războiul trecut vor fi înlăturate printr’o muncă încordată pentru înmulțirea belșugului ogoarelor și a producției fabricilor” (Marina 1948, 6).

În pastorala dată în același an de Crăciun, este amintit rolul „benefic” al conducerii statului, de la acea vreme, privind restabilirea inegalităților sociale prin confiscarea unor averi ale „celor bogați”, care au fost date tuturor: „abia în zilele noastre, cârmuitorii de azi ai Republicii Populare Române au făcut ca o parte din avuțiile strânse de cei puțin prin sudoarea celor mulți, să treacă spre folosința tuturora” (Marina 1948, 5). Nici aici ideea păcii nu lipsește (Marina 1948, 6), însă noutatea o constituie denunțarea Concordatului de la Viena, care a fost denunțat de „Înaltul Prezidiu al Marii Adunări Naționale și (de) Guvernul Republicii Populare Române” (Marina 1948, 6), fiind astfel restabilită egalitatea între toate cultele religioase.

La începutul anului 1949, cu ocazia Anului Nou, Patriarhul a emis o scurtă pastorală având ca întindere două pagini și jumătate. Acesta împărtășește gândurile sale cu privire la începutul anului 1949, amintind lucrurile împlinite în anul 1948 și anume: stabilirea noii Constituții a Statului, denunțarea Concordatului de la Viena și revenirea greco-catolicilor în sânul Bisericii Ortodoxe Române (Marina 1949, 2). Ideile păcii este reluată în ultima pagină, iar munca este adusă în prim plan prin elogierea conducătorilor statului care „au legiuit planul de gospodărie pe un an întreg, prin legea planificării și noul buget” (Marina 1949, 2).

Următoarele pastorale, care au urmat acestor continuă în același ton, cu elemente ideologice privind lupta pentru pacea și munca (indiferent că era agricolă sau industrială), câteodată fiind aduse în prim plan și unele idei noi (cum ar fi despre denunțarea Concordatului de la Viena etc.).

În pastorala dată de Sfântul Sinod al Bisericii Ortodoxe Române în anul 1952 către clerul și credincioșii ortodocși români, care îi aparține Patriarhului Justinian Marina, sunt reiterate ideea luptei pentru pace, în fața pericolului iminent al unui nou război mondial, provocat de „noii măcelari (care) care caută să înspăimânteze lumea cu sălbăticiile pe care le săvârșesc în Coreea, unde au început să întrebuințeze cele mai ticăloase arme de nimicire a femeilor, copiilor și bătrânilor, aruncând din văzduh, peste satele și orașele pașnice, sămânța ciumei, holerei și a celor mai cumplite boli” (Marina 1952, 175).

În pastorala de Crăciun din același ani ucigașii din Coreea sunt numiți „Irozii zilelor noastre” (Marina 1952, 487), care ucid sângele pruncilor (coreeni, n. n.) nevinovați.

Cu ocazia Învierii Domnului din anul 1953, Patriarhul Justinian a dat o

pastorală în care sunt pomeniți pentru prima dată ucigașii zilelor noastre și anume: „acei conducători americani, care susțin și răspândesc, în numele unei false științe că o treime din oamenii de azi trebuie uciși, îndemnând omenirea care va rămâne neucisă, să-și împuțineze înmulțirea (nașterile) ca nu cumva să vină vremea când pământul să nu-i mai poată hrăni pe toți" (Marina 1953, 82).

Pastorala din martie 1954 reprezintă un adevărat manual cu instrucțiuni pentru cultivarea terenului agricol. Acest element ideologic, al muncii, se regăsește aici bine definit și dezvoltat. Astfel, conducătorul Bisericii Ortodoxe Române, îndeamnă poporul să cultive terenul cu „porumb, cartofi, sfeclă de zahăr, floarea soarelui, fasole etc." (Marina 1954, 132-133).

Lupta pentru pace, alături de ideea muncilor agricole, este reluată în următoarele pastorale din anii 1955-1972.

În pastorala din anul 1955 este amintit faptul că statul român a fost primit în O.N.U. (Organizația Națiunilor Unite), alături de alte 15 națiuni (Marina 1955, 698).

În pastorala de Crăciun din anul 1965 se menționează ororile comise de creștinii din America în războiul prutat locuitorilor din Vietnam (Marina 1965, 952).

Un lucru interesant, ce merită reținut din pastorala de Paști din anul 1966, este faptul că „anul acesta (1966, n. n.) creștinii de toate confesiunile și din toată lumea sărbătoresc Învierea Domnului în aceeași zi. Ortodocși, catolici sau protestanți, astăzi – în a zecea zi a lunii aprilie – creștinii de pretutindeni sărbătoresc Sfintele Paști" (Marina 1966, 188).

Pastorala dată de praznicul Învierii Domnului în anul 1968 aduce în discuție problema uciderii pastorului baptist de culoare neagră din America, Martin Luther King de către un „creștin alb" (Marina 1968, 254).

Începând cu anul 1969, pastoralele își vor reduce conținutul având 3-4 pagini, iar ideile patriotarde nu vor mai fi prezentate atât de vizibil ci vor fi strecurate la finalul acestora.

Ultimele pastorale, publicate înainte de moartea sa survenită în anul 1977, ne pun în lumină un patriarh în vârstă care, ajuns la o vârstă venerabilă, își îndeamnă credincioșii ca și pe proprii săi copii, pentru a se ruga, împărtăși și a se bucura cu toată inima de sărbătoarea Nașterii și Învierii Domnului.

Concluzii

Elementele ideologice comuniste regăsite, în urma cercetării noastre, în pastoralele semnate de Patriarhul Justinian Marina (1948-1977) sunt următoarele: lupta pentru pace, respectiv pacea între popoare; cultivarea terenului agricol; munca în fabrici și uzine.

Dacă la începutul primului deceniu de conducere al Patriarhului Justinian Marina (1948-1958), discursul acestuia a fost puternic orientat spre guvernul comunist, începând cu anii '60, se va dilua treptat, ajungând să insereze doar câteva rânduri cu tentă ideologică.

Nu poate fi judecată toată opera și lucrarea unui om în funcție de elogiile aduse unui guvern, fie acesta și comunist. Mitropolitul Antonie Plămădeală, la

începutul anului 1990, a fost unul dintre primii ierarhi români care și-au cerut iertare în mod public pentru propaganda comunistă și activismul său politic dus în pastoralele și cuvântările sale ocazionale, motivând că, a făcut „un rău mic, pentru a salva Biserica de un rău mai mare”. Aici înțelegem compromisul făcut de Patriarhul Justinian Marina, care a elogiat, în cuvântările și pastoralele sale puterea comunistă pentru ca Biserica Ortodoxă Română să nu fie desființată și interzisă de Stat, așa cum se întâmplase în Rusia sau în Albania. Acesta mărturisea apropiaților că munca sa va putea fi judecată, dacă a fost bună sau rea, abia după 20 de ani.

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Marina, Justinian. 1955. Pastorală la Nașterea Domnului. Glasul Bisericii 12:695-699.

Marina, Justinian. 1965. Pastorală la Nașterea Domnului. Glasul Bisericii 11-12:948-953.

Marina, Justinian. 1966. Pastorală la Învierea Domnului. Glasul Bisericii 3-4:185-189.

Marina, Justinian. 1968. Pastorală la Învierea Domnului. Glasul Bisericii 3-4:251-256.

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Anexe

1. Listă cronologică cu pastoralele publicate de Prea Fericitul Părinte Justinian Marina (1948-1977), Patriarhul Bisericii Ortodoxe Române, în revista *Glasul Bisericii,* în perioada 1948-1976.

Nr.	Autorul	Titlul pastoralei	An	Nr.	Pagina/ Pagini
1	I. P. S. Patriarh Lt.(locotenent) Justinian	*Pastorală de Paști*	VII (1948)	4	1-7
2	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Nașterea Domnului*	VII (1948)	11-12	1-7
3	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian cu prilejul Anului Nou*	VIII (1949)	1-2	1-3
4	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sf. Paști*	VIII (1949)	4	3-6
5	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Nașterea Domnului*	VIII (1949)	11-12	3-8
6	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Paști*	IX (1950)	4-5	3-6
7	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Crăciun*	IX (1950)	11-12	3-5
8	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Paști*	X (1951)	4-5	3-6
9	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Crăciun*	X (1951)	10-12	3-7[13]
10	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sf. Paști*	XI (1952)	2-3	5-9
11	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală pentru muncile de primăvară*	XI (1952)	2-3	10-15
12	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian (Sfântul Sinod al Bisericii Ortodoxe Române) [14]	*Pastorală Sfântul Sinod al Bisericii Ortodoxe Române*	XI (1952)	5-7	175-179

[13] În momentul redactării lucrării noastre nu am avut acces din nefericire la textul *Pastoralei de Crăciun*, publicată în nr. 10-12 pe anul 1951 din revista *Glasul Bisericii*, pp. 3-7, ci doar la cuprinsul în format scanat al revistei.

[14] În cuprins autorul pastoralei apare ca fiind I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian, însă la pagina 175, unde începe pastorala, apare scris titlul următor *Pastorala Sfântului Sinod al Bisericii Ortodoxe*

13	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală (I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian, tuturor clericilor și credincioșilor)*	XI (1952)	5-7	180-186
14	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Nașterea Domnului*	XI (1952)	11-12	483-487
15	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Sărbători ale Învierii Domnului*	XII (1953)	2-3	79-85
16	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Sărbători ale Nașterii Domnului*	XII (1953)	12	707-712
17	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorala I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian în legătură cu muncile agricole de primăvară (nr. 2888/1954)*	XIII (1954)	3	131-134
18	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Paști*[15]	XIII (1954)	4-5	179-182
19	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Sărbători ale Nașterii Domnului*[16]	XIII (1954)	11-12	555-562
20	I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală cu prilejul Sfintei Învieri*	XIV (1955)	3-4	131-135
21	P. F. Patriarh Justinian, Patriarhul Romîniei	*Pastorală la Nașterea Domnului*	XIV (1955)	12	695-699
22	P. F. Patriarh Justinian, Patriarhul Romîniei	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XV (1956)	5	215-219
23	P. F. Patriarh Justinian, Patriarhul Romîniei	*Pastorală la Nașterea Domnului*	XV (1956)	12	679-683
24	P. F. Patriarh Justinian, Patriarhul Romîniei	*Pastorală de Sf. Paști*	XVI (1957)	4-5	203-208
25	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală*	XVI (1957)	6-7	349-352
26	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Nașterea Domnului*	XVI (1957)	12	811-816

Române. De-aici reiese faptul că autorul pastoralei este defapt Sfântului Sinod al Bisericii Ortodoxe Române, al cărui preşedinte era I. P. S. Patriarh Justinian.

[15] Titlul apare scris aşa doar în cuprinsul revistei.

[16] *Ibidem*

27	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Paşti, 1958*	XVII (1958)	4	299-303
28	† Justinian, Patriarhul României	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XVII (1958)	12	1133-1136
29	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorala de Paşti*	XIX (1960)	3-4	153-157
30	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XIX (1960)	12	881-885
31	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XX (1961)	3-4	189194
32	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XX (1961)	11-12	965-969
33	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Paşti*	XXI (1962)	3-4	205-210
34	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXI (1962)	11-12	1017-1022
35	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Paşti*	XXII (1963)	3-4	209-215
36	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXII (1963)	11-12	981-985
37	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Paşti*	XXIII (1964)	5-6	397-401
38	P. F. Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului, 1965*[17]	XXIII (1964)	11-12	1001-1006
39	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală de Sfintele Paşti*	XXIV (1965)	3-4	197-202
40	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorala la Naşterea Domnului*	XXIV (1965)	11-12	948-953
41	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorala la Învierea Domnului*	XXV (1966)	3-4	185-189
42	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorala la Naşterea Domnului*	XXV (1966)	11-12	960-965
43	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXVI (1967)	3-4	189-195
44	P. F. Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXVI (1967)	11-12	1040-1046
45	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXVII (1968)	3-4	251-256

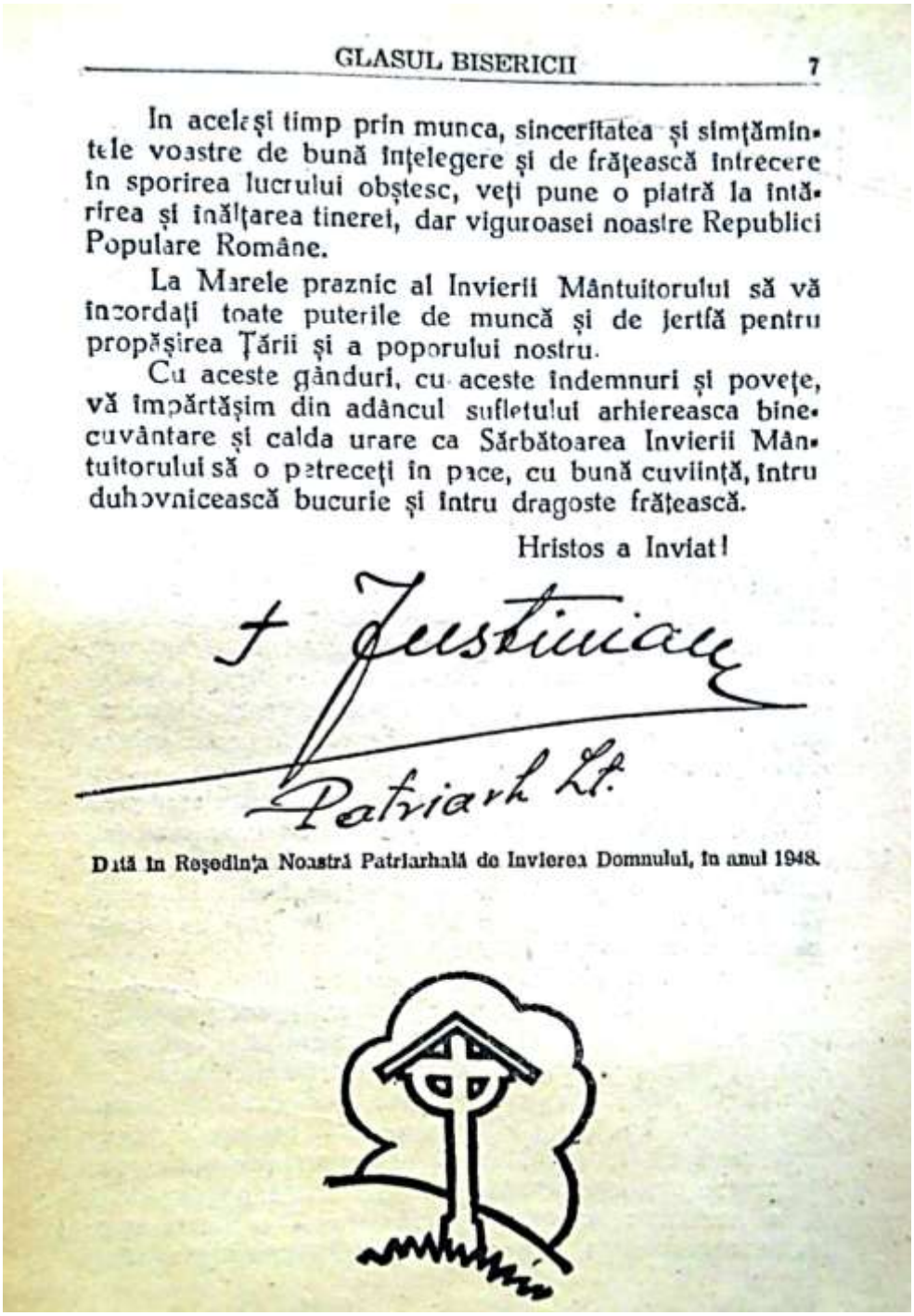
[17] În cuprins a apărut o eroare de tehnoredactare şi anume anul 1965, întrucât este vorba despre anul 1964. Acest lucru e valabil şi pentru celelalte două pastorale.

46	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXVII (1968)	11-12	1095-1099
47	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXVIII (1969)	3-4	249-251
48	† Justinian, Patriarhul Bisericii Ortodoxe Române	*Mesajul către clerul şi credincioşii din Arhiepiscopia Bucureştilor cu prilejul sărbătoririi a 25 de ani de la eliberarea Patriei noastre*	XXVIII (1969)	7-8	745-746
49	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXVIII (1969)	11-12	1140-1143
50	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXIX (1970)	3-4	205-209
51	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXIX (1970)	11-12	1084-1087
52	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXX (1971)	3-4	197-200
53	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXX (1971)	11-12	1040-1043
54	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXXI (1972)	3-4	237-240
55	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXXI (1972)	11-12	1110-1113
56	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXXII (1973)	3-4	264-268
57	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXXII (1973)	11-12	1175-1179
58	Prea Fericitul Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXXIII (1974)	3-4	217-220
59	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXXIII (1974)	11-12	1012-1016
60	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXXIV (1975)	5-6	438-441
61	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXXIV (1975)	11-12	1112-1116
62	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Învierea Domnului*	XXXV (1976)	3-4	265-268
63	Prea Fericitul Părinte Patriarh Justinian	*Pastorală la Naşterea Domnului*	XXXV (1976)	11-12	824-830

2. Patriarhul Justinian Marina în anul 1948 (fotografie din revista *Glasul Bisericii*, Anul VII, nr. 5-6, mai-iunie 1948

Înalt Prea Sfințitul D.D. Justinian
Arhiepiscopul Bucureștilor, Mitropolitul Ungro-Valahiei
și Preafericitul Patriarh al Bisericii Ortodoxe Române

3. Semnătura Patriarhului Justinian Marina pe prima sa pastorală din anul 1948 (fotografie din revista *Glasul Bisericii*, Anul VII, nr. 4, aprilie 1948)



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In acelaşi timp prin munca, sinceritatea şi simţămintele voastre de bună înţelegere şi de frăţească întrecere în sporirea lucrului obştesc, veţi pune o piatră la întărirea şi înălţarea tinerei, dar viguroasei noastre Republici Populare Române.

La Marele praznic al Învierii Mântuitorului să vă încordaţi toate puterile de muncă şi de jertfă pentru propăşirea Ţării şi a poporului nostru.

Cu aceste gânduri, cu aceste îndemnuri şi poveţe, vă împărtăşim din adâncul sufletului arhierească binecuvântare şi calda urare ca Sărbătoarea Învierii Mântuitorului să o petreceţi în pace, cu bună cuviinţă, întru duhovnicească bucurie şi întru dragoste frăţească.

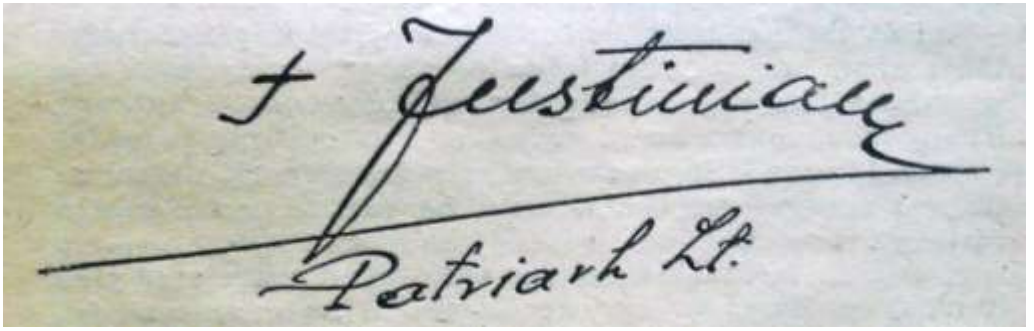
Hristos a Înviat!

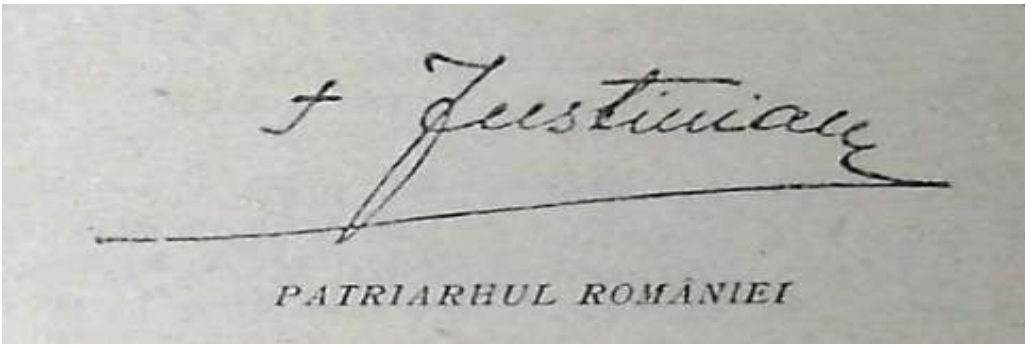
† Justinian

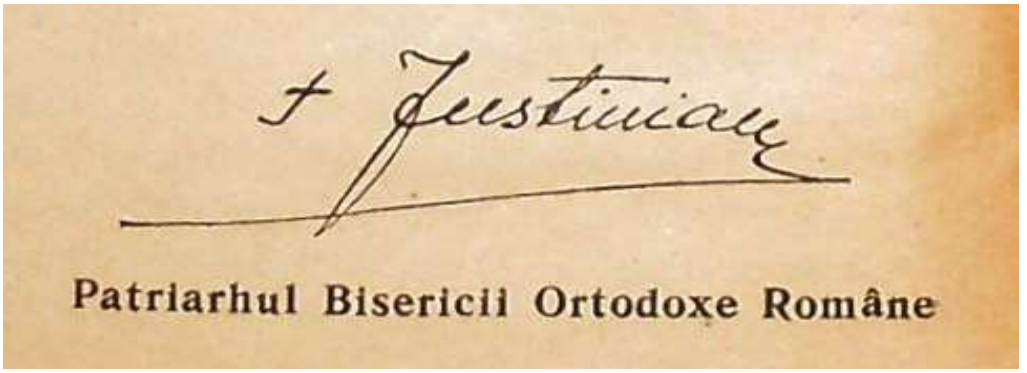
Patriarh Lt.

Dată în Reşedinţa Noastră Patriarhală de Învierea Domnului, în anul 1948.

4. Diferite semnături ale Patriarhului Justinian Marina pe pastoralele sale







THE LABOR MARKET DYNAMICS. BARRIERS AND CHALLENGES IN THE CITY OF CRAIOVA IN 2015

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Abstract

Global changes of the last ten years have exemplified perfectly the Gaussian distribution, global economic crisis during 2007-2010, reconfiguring, the distribution of the active population. The unstable entrepreneurial environment has strongly affected the labor market in Romania, still uncrystallised after its post-revolutionary formation. Its stakeholders (employers, employees and the unemployed) have adapted and readapted according to the social, political and economic dynamics. The reconfiguration of demand, determined also the reconfiguration of supply. Lack of integrated (economic and educational) policies has deepened the cleavage between the expectations of stakeholders. On the one hand employers are looking for educated labor force ready to meet their needs, and on the other hand, potential employees are looking for jobs appropriate for their training. The dissonance between demand and supply was, unfortunately, maintained also, by the faulty reforms of the educational system and its failure to adapt its training programs to the labor market requirements. How do we minimize the gaps? How do we systematically support employers to procure suitable employees? How do we offer for future employees a chance to know the expectations of the employers? These were the questions that formed the basis of the sociological research conducted in 2015, to identify the personnel deficit of the labor market in the city of Craiova. We used the survey opinion method, based on a questionnaire administered to 53 employers, selected according to their field of activity and to their staff increases, registered in the last years.

Key words: *labor market, demand, offer, employers, unemployed persons, Craiova*

Introducere

Schimbările globale din ultimii zece ani au exemplificat perfect distribuția gaussiană, criza economică mondială din perioada 2007-2010 reconfigurând distribuția populației active. Chiar și la nivelul statelor europene, în ultimii ani, milioane de persoane au rămas fără locuri de muncă, astfel, ajungându-se la o rată ridicată a sărăciei și impunându-se elaborarea unei serii de reforme pentru redresarea situației (Guvernul României. MMFPSPV, 2014: p. 4).

Devine necesară realocarea periodică a lucrătorilor între diferite domenii de activitate (Mortensen & Pissarides, 1999), deoarece, o piață a muncii flexibilă, este, se pare, unul dintre cele mai importante elemente strategice pentru diminuarea ratei sărăciei și efectelor crizelor economice (Șerban, 2013: p. 66).

Mediul antreprenorial instabil a afectat puternic piața muncii din România, încă necristalizată după formarea sa post-decembristă. Actorii acesteia (angajatorii, angajații și șomerii) s-au adaptat și readaptat în funcție de dinamica socială, politică și economică. Reconfigurarea cererii a determinat însă și reconfigurarea ofertei. Lipsa politicilor integrate (economice și educaționale) a adâncit clivajul între așteptările actorilor.

Pe de o parte angajatorii caută forță de muncă pregătită educațional pentru nevoile lor iar, pe de altă parte, potențialii angajați caută locuri de muncă adecvate pregătirii lor. Disonanța între cerere și ofertă a fost, din păcate, întreținută și de reformele defectuoase ale sistemului de învățământ și de incapacitatea acestuia de a adapta programele de formare profesională cerințelor pieței muncii.

Prin Strategia Europa 2020, statele Uniunii Europene și-au asumat ”creșterea gradului de ocupare pentru lucrătorii cu calificări reduse și a persoanelor vârstnice, realizarea unor sisteme de sprijinire a absolvenților tineri pentru găsirea primului loc de muncă și eliminarea obstacolelor în calea mobilităților lucrătorilor”. În acest sens, statele membre vor trebui să ofere cetățenilor ”competențele necesare pentru a răspunde exigențelor pieței muncii, vor trebui totodată să crească accesul la sistemul educațional, la formare profesională și consiliere profesională” (Guvernul României. MMFPSPV, 2014: p. 27).

Situația actuală a pieței forței de muncă din România și județul Dolj

Creșterea economică înregistrată la nivelul României nu este una sustenabilă, aceasta fiind efectul unui nivel ridicat al consumului, nebazându-se pe ocupare și astfel, piața muncii fiind tot mai vulnerabilă. Din nefericire, piața românească a forței de muncă este afectată profund de multiple fenomene precum: scăderea continuă a populației (peste 5 puncte procentuale, reprezentând un milion de persoane, în ultimii 12 ani); sporul natural negativ; creșterea vârstei mediane a populației și creșterea numărului de emigranți (Guvernul României. MMFPSPV, 2014: p. 8-12); rata scăzută de angajabilitate a populației de etnie romă și a tinerilor; rata mare a abandonului școlar cu consecințe directe asupra calificărilor populației; dar și calificările neconforme cu cerințele angajatorilor, ale persoanelor cu vârste cuprinse între 15 și 64 de ani (European Commission, 2016: p. 60).

În România, dintr-o populație rezidentă de 19.94 milioane de persoane, în al treilea semestru a anului 2016, populația activă era de 9.14 milioane persoane (INS, 2016a: p. 1) (reprezentând 45.85% din populația totală). La finalul anului 2016, pentru populația cu vârste cuprinse între 15 și 64 de ani, întâlnim o rată de ocupare de 63.1%, cu un procent de 54.4% pentru femei și

71.7% pentru bărbați, respectiv 63.7% provenind din mediul urban și 62.3% din mediul rural (INS, 2016a: pp. 1-2). Pentru persoanele cu vârste cuprinse între 15 și 24 de ani, rata de ocupare a fost, în semestrul trei al anului 2016, de 24.9%.

Țara noastră s-a angajat să îndrepte situația pieței forței de muncă până în anul 2020, prin asumarea unei ”rate de ocupare de 70% pentru populația cu vârsta cuprinsă între 20 și 64 de ani” prin Strategia Națională pentru Ocuparea Forței de Muncă 2014-2020 (Guvernul României. MMFPSPV, 2014: p. 4).

Pentru identificarea șomajului din România, regăsim la nivel național două surse de informare: INS și AJOFM. Rata șomajului era în luna decembrie a anului 2016 de 5.7%, conform Institutului Național de Statistică, Biroul Internațional al Muncii (INS, 2016a: p. 1), iar conform datelor Agenției Naționale pentru Ocuparea Forței de Muncă, rata șomajului în luna octombrie a anului 2016, era de 4.76%. cu un număr al șomerilor înregistrați la agențiile teritoriale pentru ocuparea forței de muncă de 417.875, dintre aceștia 81.418 primind încă indemnizație de șomaj (ANOFM, 2016: p. 1). Conform ANOFM, repartiția șomerilor în toamna anului 2016, în funcție de rezidență, era în mediul urban de 122.512 persoane și în rural de 295.363 persoane, iar în funcție de grupa de vârstă, un procent de 27.6% era reprezentat de persoane având vârste cuprinse între 40 și 49 de ani, 20.13% erau șomeri cu vârste de la 30 la 39 de ani, iar 8.08% erau șomeri cu vârste cuprinse între 25 și 29 de ani. În urma clasificării șomerilor români în funcție de nivelul de studii, se observă că 79.48% dintre aceștia aveau studii primare, gimnaziale sau profesionale, un procent de 16.36% aveau studii liceale sau post-liceale și doar 4.16% dintre șomeri aveau studii universitare (ANOFM, 2016: p. 1).

Conform datelor Comisiei Europene, la finalul anului 2015, în România, din populația civilă ocupată de 8431.7 mii de persoane, un număr de 4900.7 mii de persoane era reprezentat de salariați, iar dintre aceștia, 3014.5 mii lucrau în domeniul serviciilor, 1772.4 mii persoane în construcții și industrie, un număr de 113.8 mii fiind ocupate în agricultură, piscicultură și silvicultură (Comisia Europeană. EURES, 2016). În ultimii ani, numărul românilor ocupați în agricultură a scăzut foarte mult, aceste persoane, aproape în totalitate pierzând ”statutul ocupațional de lucrător pe cont propriu” și se observă, pe de altă parte, o deplasare a lucrătorilor pe cont propriu către domeniul construcțiilor (Guvernul României. MMFPSPV, 2014: p. 15).

Marile provocări ale pieței forței de muncă românești menționate la începutul capitolului și regăsite în Raportul de țară al României emis în anul 2016 de către Comisa Europeană, identifică și direcțiile de acțiune pe care țara noastră va trebui să le urmeze, precum ridicarea nivelului mediu de calificare a forței de muncă, consolidarea capacității instituțiilor pion pentru piața forței de muncă și scăderea ratei de părăsire timpurie a școlii (European Commission, 2016: p. 60). Pe de altă parte, Consiliul Uniunii Europene a emis în luna iulie a anului 2016, recomandări în ceea ce privește Programul Național de Reformă al României pentru 2016, iar în direcția pieței muncii acesta a recomandat pentru perioada

2016-2017 ”Consolidarea serviciilor Agenției Naționale pentru Ocuparea Forței de Muncă pentru angajatori și pentru persoanele aflate în căutarea unui loc de muncă, în special prin adaptarea serviciilor la profilurile persoanelor aflate în căutarea unui loc de muncă, printr-o mai bună corelare a acestor servicii cu serviciile de asistență socială, inclusiv servicii sociale, și prin acordarea unei atenții speciale tinerilor neînregistrați”. Pe de altă parte se recomandă stabilirea salariului minim ca urmare a consultării societății civile și a a partenerilor sociali, adoptarea de acțiuni pentru prevenirea abandonului școlar, în special în ceea ce îi privește pe cetățenii romi și totodată se impune cu celeritate adoptarea legislației care stabilește ”egalizarea vârstei de pensionare pentru bărbați și femei” (Consiliul Uniunii Europene, 2016: p. 5).

În județul Dolj, regăseam la începutul anului 2016 un număr de 406.7 mii persoane având potențial de muncă, dintre care 400.1 mii persoane în vârstă de muncă, la care se adaugă persoanele aflate în activitate sau angajate și care au peste sau sub vârsta de muncă (20.3 mii) și se scad pensionarii în vârstă de muncă care nu lucrează și persoanele având vârsta de muncă dar care au incapacitate permanentă de muncă (15.1 mii) (INS, 2016b: p. 138). Dintre aceste persoane, populația civilă ocupată este reprezentată de 248.8 mii persoane, dintre care 127.8 mii sunt salariați. O mare parte din populația ocupată din județul Dolj lucrează în ”agricultură, silvicultură și pescuit” (88.2 mii persoane), un număr de 40.4 mii în industrie, 35.7 mii de persoane în comerț și reparații de autoturisme, un număr de 33.3 mii activează în ”industria prelucrătoare”, 23.4 mii persoane în ”producția și furnizarea de energie electrică și termică, gaze, apă caldă și aer condiționat”, un număr de 16 mii în construcții, 12.9 mii activează în serviciile de sănătate și asistență socială, 12.5 mii persoane lucrează în învățământ, un număr de 10.3 mii activează în ”transport și depozitare”, 8 mii de persoane lucrează în ”informații și comunicații”, 6.3 mii în ”activități de servicii administrative și activități de servicii suport”, 5.3 mii de persoane sunt angajate în ”activități profesionale, științifice și tehnice”, un număr de 5.9 mii de angajați regăsim în ”administrație publică și apărare; asigurări sociale din sistemul public”, întâlnim 4 mii de persoane care activează în domeniul hotelier și în restaurante etc (INS, 2016b: pp. 137-138).

Județul Dolj se găsește pe locul patru în topul județelor din România, în privința ratei ridicate a șomajului, ajungând în octombrie 2016 la nivelul de 9.49%, alături de județe precum Vaslui, Teleorman și Buzău, unde regăsim rate ale șomajului de 11.66%, 11.27%, respectiv 9.74% (ANOFM, 2016: p. 1).

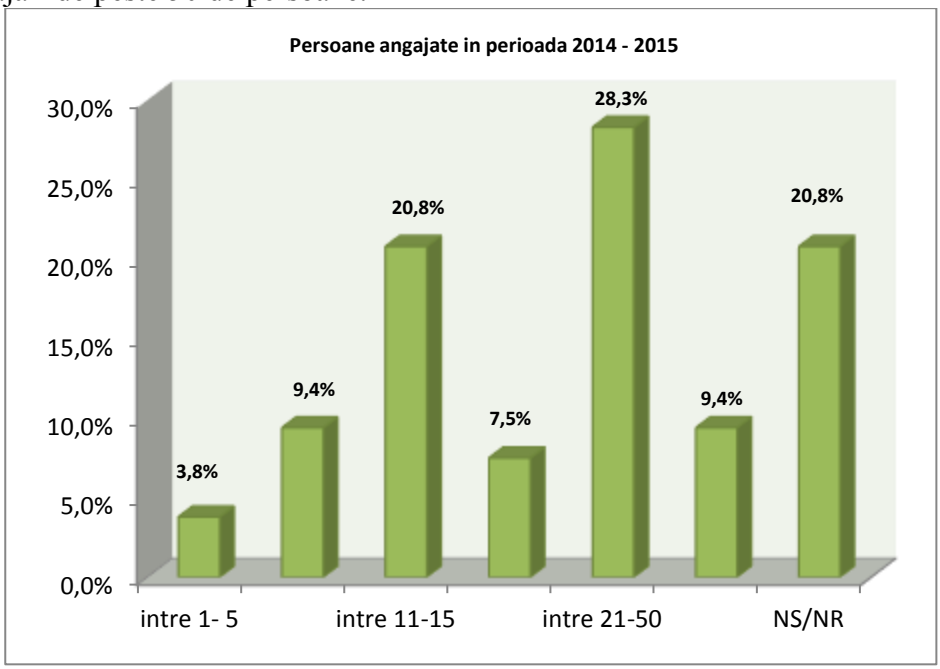
Bariere și provocări în piața muncii la nivelul anului 2015. Studiu de caz: Cererea și oferta de locuri de muncă din Municipiul Craiova

Studiul privind cerințele pieței muncii și potențialul persoanelor active din județul Dolj vine în întâmpinarea celor doi actori ai acesteia *(angajatori și viitori/actuali angajați),* cu scopul de a construi premisele unui set de soluții necesar adaptabilității.

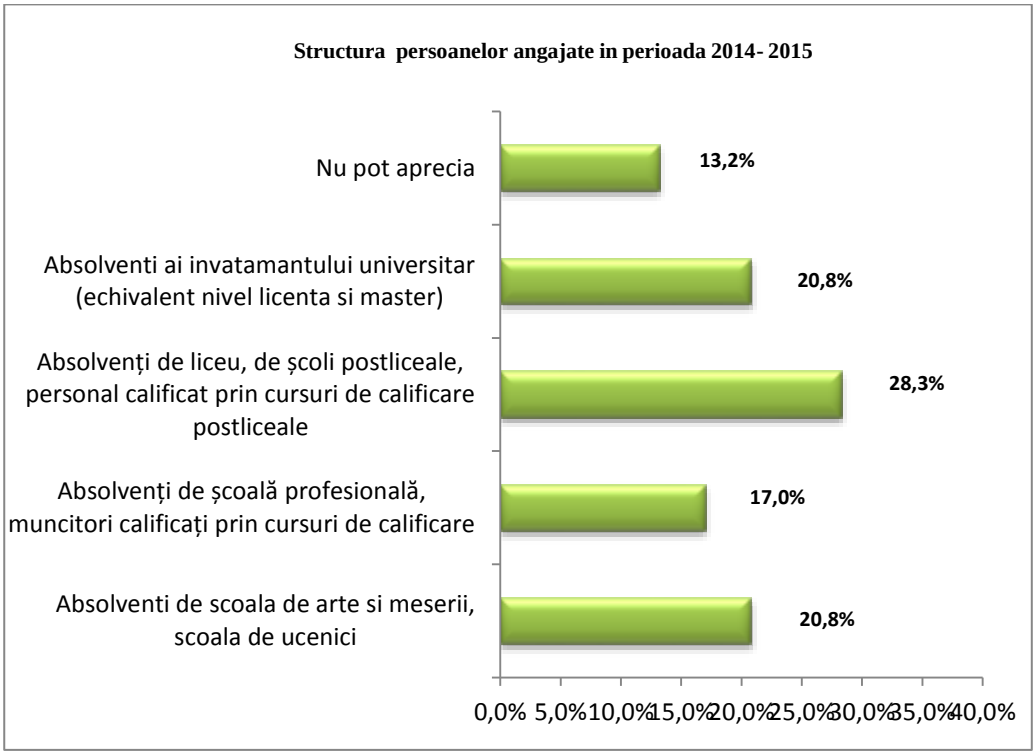
În perpetua tranziție a societății românești din 1989 până în prezent, marcată de puternice influențe globalizatoare și de recesiunea mondială ce a generat modificări consistente și la nivelul pieței muncii, România e definită de impredictibilitate în ceea ce privește cererea și oferta pe termen scurt și mediu. În aceste condiții oamenii au fost prinși, de-a lungul timpului, într-o serie de schimbări ale pieței muncii, marcate de procese de reformă economică, de restructurare și privatizare, fără a fi pregătiți pentru înfruntarea diverselor obstacole pe care le-ar putea întâlni în procesul de căutare a unui loc de muncă.

Studiul privind cerințele pieței muncii și potențialul persoanelor active din județul Dolj vine în întâmpinarea celor doi actori ai acesteia *(angajatorii și viitorii/actualii angajați)*, cu scopul de a construi premisele unui set de soluții necesar adaptabilității. Din această perspectivă, ne-am propus să analizăm dificultățile cu care se confruntă angajatorii din municipiul Craiova, atunci când încearcă să identifice potențiali angajați compatibili cu nevoile și așteptările lor. Cercetarea sociologică realizată la nivelul anului 2015 a urmărit să releve dinamica pieței muncii, consonanțele și disonanțele cererii și ofertei de locuri de muncă, precum și clivajele dintre sistemul educațional și cel antreprenorial. A fost utilizată ancheta de opinie, pe bază de chestionar administrat unui număr de 53 angajatori, selectați în funcție de diversitatea domeniului de activitate din care proveneau și de creșterile de personal înregistrate în ultimii ani de funcționare.

Angajatorii intervievați s-au numărat printre cei care au încheiat anul cu o dinamică pozitivă a numărului mediu de angajați, astfel că, în perioada 2014 – 2015, 28.3% dintre aceștia au înregistrat contracte de muncă pentru 21-50 persoane, 20.8% pentru 11-15 persoane, și doar 9.4% dintre companii au făcut angajări de peste 50 de persoane.

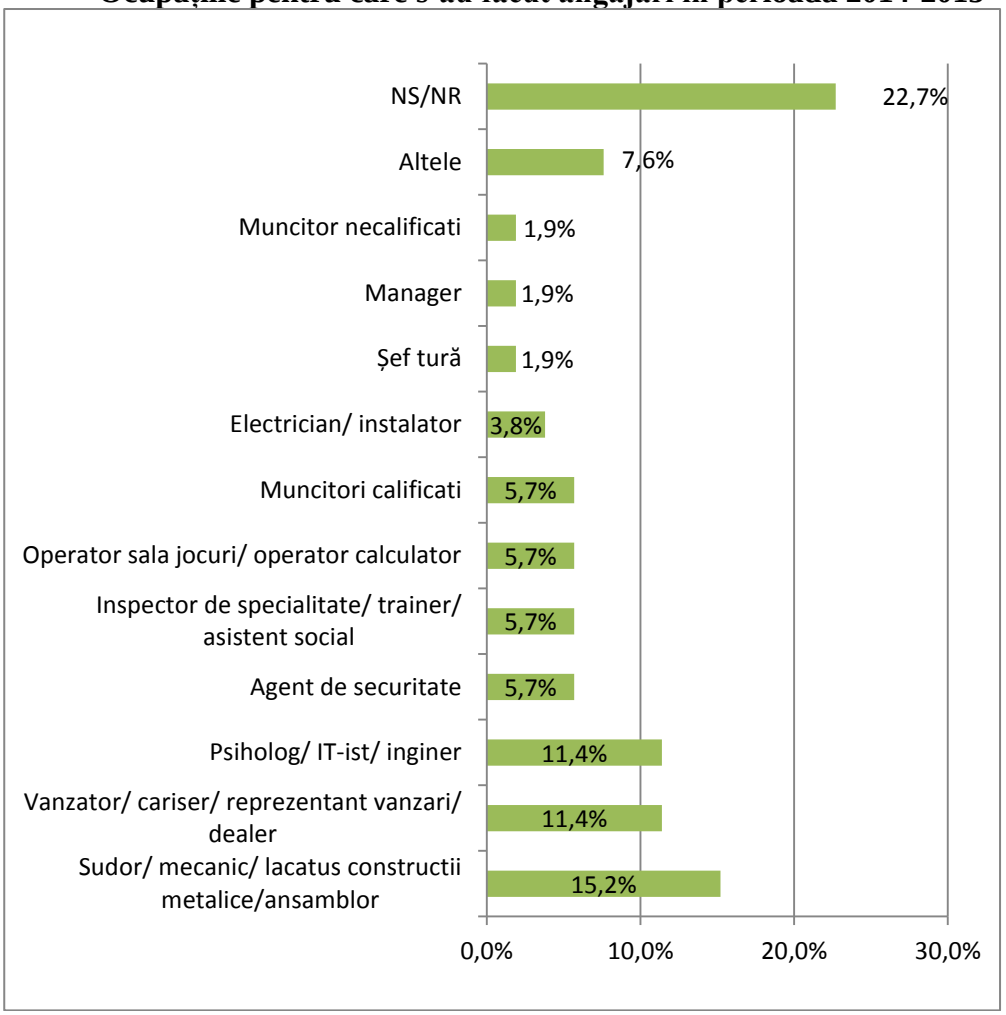


În perioada 2014 – 2015, 28,3% dintre companiile respondente au preferat să angajeze absolvenți de studii liceale (liceu tehnologic) și scoli postliceale, precum și personal calificat prin cursuri de calificare/specializare postliceale. Doar 20.8% dintre angajatori au fost interesați de absolvenți ai școlilor de arte si meserii și absolventi ai invatamantului universitar (echivalent nivel licenta si master). Pe ultimul loc sunt absolvenții de an de completare, scoală profesională, muncitori calificati prin cursuri de calificare care au fost integrați în câmpul muncii de către 17% dintre respondenți.

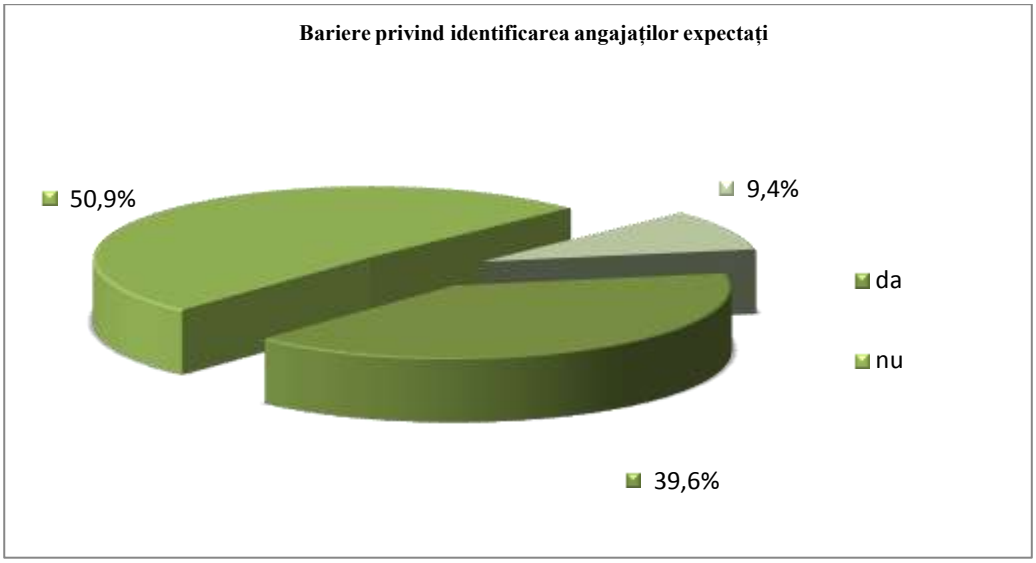

Structura persoanelor angajate in perioada 2014- 2015
Nu pot aprecia
13,2%
Absolventi ai invatamantului universitar (echivalent nivel licenta si master)
20,8%
Absolvenți de liceu, de școli postliceale, personal calificat prin cursuri de calificare postliceale
28,3%
Absolvenți de școală profesională, muncitori calificați prin cursuri de calificare
17,0%
Absolventi de scoala de arte si meserii, scoala de ucenici
20,8%
0,0% 5,0% 10,0% 15,0% 20,0% 25,0% 30,0% 35,0% 40,0%

Întrebați care sunt ocupațiile pentru care există nevoie de personal în cadrul companiilor, cei mai multi dintre respondenți au menționat „*Sudor/ mecanic/ lăcătuş construcţii metalice/asamblor*”(15,2%), urmat de *Vânzator/casier/reprezentant vânzări/dealer* (11,4%) și *psiholog/ IT-ist/ inginer* (11,4%).

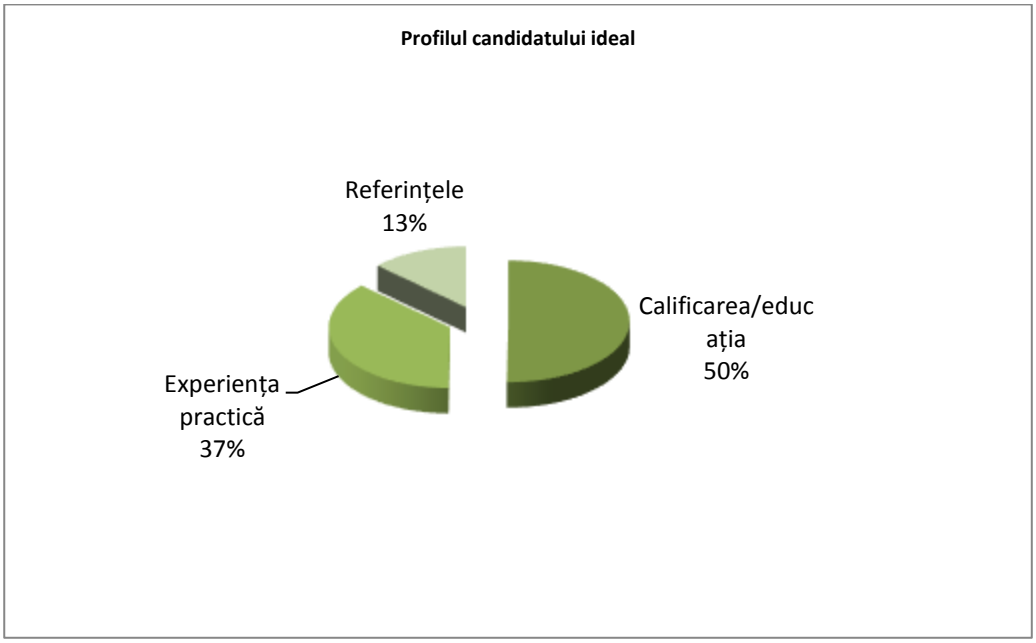
Ocupațiile pentru care s-au făcut angajări în perioada 2014-2015



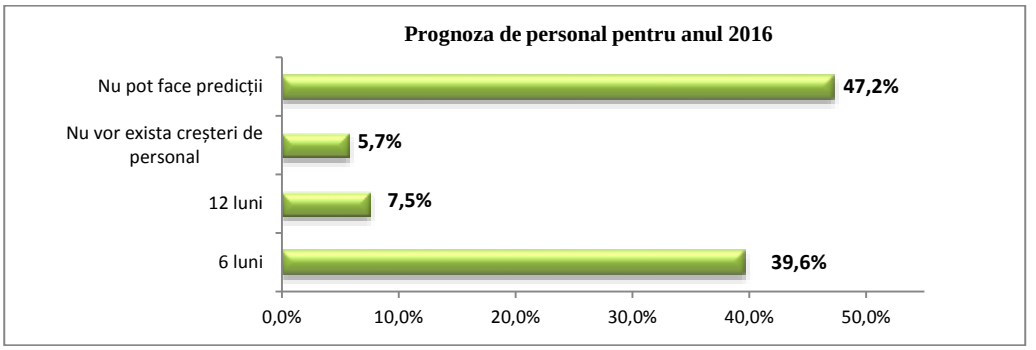
Actuala piață a muncii este condiționată de declinul demografic, migrația masivă, abandonul școlar și necorelarea sistemului educațional cu profilul organizațiilor din cele trei sectoare de activitate (industrie, agricultură, servicii). Astăzi, mai mult ca oricând, ”homo oeconomicus” își relevă caracteristicile (concurența, neîncrederea, gloria) în mediul concurențial și este tranzacționat de către cei mai ageri angajatori. (Hoffman, 2004: p. 79). Întrebați fiind dacă au întâmpinat greutăți în găsirea personalului calificat, 39.6% dintre angajatori au răspuns afirmativ, pe când 50,9% au spus că nu au întâmpinat greutăți.



Personalul expectat și neprocurat nu întrunește profilul căutat de angajatori. Aceștia preferă ca potențialul angajat să aibă vârsta optimă cuprinsă între 26 și 35 de ani, să fie educat/calificat, să dețină experiență în domeniul postului pentru care își exprimă candidatura și să prezinte referințe de la locurile de muncă anterioare. Exigențele angajatorilor se întâlnesc deseori cu exigențele viitorilor angajați, adâncind clivajele. Organizațiile incumbă lipsa pregătirii de specialitate, a expertizei și seriozității și candidații se supraapreciază, considerând că trebuie recompensați cu mult peste ceea ce pot oferi.



Nevoia de creștere organizațională se bazează prioritar pe resursa umană. Nu există strategie de dezvoltare care să nu includă și o prognoză ascendentă a forței de muncă. Și angajatorii lotizați în studiul nostru și-au configurat extinderi pentru următorul an calendaristic, estimând că vor avea nevoie de angajați noi în intervalul 2015-2016, 39.6% dintre respondenți confirmând că vor angaja în următoarele 6 luni și 7.5% în următoarele 12 luni. La polul opus, 5.7% consideră nu vor avea nevoie de personal nou, iar aproape jumătate nu au putut aprecia.



Concluzii

Cercetarea sociologică a fost realizată urmărind două aspecte esențiale ale pieței forței de muncă: barierele care generează deficitul de forța de muncă din economie și identificarea nevoii de forță de muncă pentru a o corela cu cea de calificare. Pregătirea profesională urmată de o dezvoltare continuă a carierei trebuie să constituie o prioritate atât pentru companii cât și pentru salariați, din dorința comună de a face performanță. Din această categorie fac parte și persoanele aflate în căutarea unui loc de muncă, care pentru a se insera/reinsera pe piața forței de muncă au nevoie de o reconversie profesională sau o aprofundare a cunoștințelor deținute deja într-un anumit domeniu. Din acest motiv, întărim soluția investiției în educație pe toată perioada vieții active și susținem „*dezvoltarea profesională ca proces complex, al cărui obiectiv să-l constituie însușirea de cunoștințe mixte (teoretice și practice) utile atât prezentului, cât și viitorului – anticiparea profesională" (*Robert L., Mathias, John H., Jackson, 2000: p. 96*).*

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II. EDUCATION SCIENCES

THE DYNAMIC OF THE ACADEMIC MERIT RELATIONSHIPS – SOCIAL POSITION

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1. School merit, diploma and social destiny

"Merit" is a concept that we meet or we use frequently in your current life. We talk about a student that deserves a prize, deserves a scholarship, deserves to win a competition deserves to pass the baccalaureate exam etc. In the same way we talk about an adult that deserves to be promoted, deserves a job, deserves to earn better, etc.

The conceptualization of the notion of "merit" has not benefited and does not benefit from consistent, systematic approaches, although the realities of past decades would justify the orientation of specialists to investigate issues of this theme. Colloquially "merit" is cited quite frequently. So we talk of increased popularity of this type of statements on the one hand but at the same time we find fundamental ambiguity of the notion in question. Beyond its very common and very popular invoking it has not received special theoretical treatments. From the teaching perspective, which are the "merits" of a student who is in school that can and must be rewarded? Here are some situations where a student "deserves" to be rewarded: studies every day, participates in extracurricular activities, participates in activities in various fields: art, culture, sports, science; promoted with remarkable results an examination/a summative assessment; has achieved remarkable results in national assessments and international comparative ones; has passed the baccalaureate exam; passed capacity examinations etc. Therefore "merit" is an intuitive notion, always related to clear, concrete contexts related to school life.

On the other hand, the reasons for which an adult "deserves" to be rewarded are very different: "because he worked well, because he is intelligent, because he proved to have will, because he performed well ..." (Elise Tenret, L »*Ecole et la croyance en la meritocratie,* PhD dissertation, Directeur de these : Madame Marie DURU-BELLAT (Text presente en vue du l »obtenir du titre de DOCTEUR EN SOCIOLOGIE, le 3 decembre 2008, General Introduction page 1).

Merit and education are two interrelated notions that are in close interaction. The notion derived from "merit" – "meritocracy" is or should be the object of pertinent study. In the collective mind "meritocracy" is most often associated with the reward of "academic merit". Because it is stated that "a society will be meritocratic if academic achievement determines social positions for each individual based on merit", the "school merit"! Therefore, it is observed a great association, almost natural, between "merit" and "school universe". We will understand why school "meritocracy" also enjoys such a popularity

analyzing social and psychological functions of "merit". And, further, deciphering the impact of education, specifically the school socialization, on the representations of "meritocracy and merit".

2. School merit, winners and losers

We can analyze the school "merit" school from two perspectives or dimensions. It is about the size of its objective and subjective dimension. Adherence or lack of adherence to the "meritocracy" shows inter-individual variations; it is obvious that in the two groups/classes/categories there are "winners" and respectively "losers". The "winners" internalize "meritocracy" and its values. Some individuals internalize "meritocracy" ... join meritocracy ... which means they realize that they have a certain place in society due to academic merit. Moreover, in perspective they might be the ones that value the hierarchies in which losers do not believe. In this way there is a hiatus between the two groups.

The objective dimension of the "merit" is represented by the direct correlation between the "degree" and the "social destiny" of the individual. A society is considered to be "meritocratic" if the social background of the individuals has no connection with the degree obtained by them and if their social destiny is entirely determined by degrees. Most scientific papers in the field evaluate "meritocracy" through the degree. A society is indeed "meritocratic" if social positions are obtained as a result of the merit of each individual and do not arise from social origin, are not obtained by birth (Tiberiu Bogdan, Studiu introductiv, Copiii capabili de performante superioare, Caiete de pedagogie moderna, nr 9, EDP, 1981, page 25).

But the "merit" is also a principle of social justice. Nowadays societies strive to promote increasingly this social justice principle which is strongly supported by the theory "Increased Merit Selection". This theory, advanced in 1992 by Jonsson, proposes that "in modern societies merit must be the determinant principle of access to education and education to be the main determinant of access to various social positions".

Meritocracy is a desirable thing. What is more beautiful and fair in a society than being promoted on merit! To win your place in society and profession through merit and not through any other tricks ... helped by gang membership ... circumstances ... other criteria than those that are based on "merit" ... What it is more damaging for others, for the community you live in, for the society than to occupy positions or jobs, to have the advantages that you do not "deserve"...

The subjective dimension of the "merit" is in itself very important. Is it fair/just for outstanding academic merit, validated by the school to determine remarkable social positions? There occur naturally, questions like: social inequalities caused by academic merit/validated through school, materialized in a degree, are considered fair by all social actors? Does school merit truly

determine social position always deserved? It is about the correspondence between school merit and social inequalities, thanks or discontent of individuals. Is this correlation real?

The society based on meritocracy is based on implemented merit logic. The term "meritocracy" was advanced in 1958 by the English sociologist Michael Young. The history of the word "meritocracy" begins with the publication of Michael Young's work entitled *The Rise of the Meritocracy*. The word resulted from the Latin root "*meritum*" (win, hoard, salary, which of course is worthy) and the Greek root "*cratos"*, which means "strength". Its author, Michael Young, chose to invent this new term, that of "meritocracy" to denote a society where everyone's positions depend on his/her talent and efforts (Elise Tenret, op. cit).

3. You learn, you have benefits!

School is the main determinant of the acceptance of meritocracy. Through everything that promotes confidence in meritocracy. One of the objectives of the activity of the teachers is definitely the development of metacognitive skills of the students. The teacher has a multitude of tasks and responsibilities. In this context it is the duty of every teacher or primary school teacher to invite students to ponder whether the grades they receive are given on merit, if they are correct in relation to the effort and the manifested results. Following the same logic, it would be natural for each pupil or student to wonder whether the degree, certificate or other school document he obtained after evaluations are deserved. Finally, everyone should ask his question to what extent the obtained/owned social position is in correspondence with the merit, primarily with academic merit. Free access to education generates increasingly more questions about the school meritocracy. In other words does the classic adage "You learn, you have befits" really work?

It seems that the pedagogical, sociological, philosophical research of the interdependence between "merit", the principles of social justice and social inequalities must be reconsidered. In Romania of the last decades there have to be reconsidered the relationships between the three concepts because they have been created conditions for equal opportunities in education, but it must be seen to what extent was assured also the equal access. In theory, all students have access to education but have they had equal chances of success? "The liberating effect of education has not been well understood, it has not been accepted or even exploited by certain families ... or maybe free access to education happened to be promoted" but the access was not free, it was restricted by various factors and conditions: social, cultural level, material resources etc. It would be interesting to see the effects in terms of education, to what extent they are right, or rather how they are perceived by educational actors.

At the same time, we have to admit that the Romanian school has strong meritocratic traditions. There have always been exams, competitions and, consequently, awards given, classifications, hierarchies etc., all of which actually

being recognitions of the “school merit” of pupils (Alexander Vitzu, 1888 Study on secondary education in Romania, Printing Royal Court, Bucharest).

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THE TUTORING PHENOMENON - AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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Introduction

At the origin of the idea to approach an exploratory study of the social phenomenon of tutoring in Romania, initially was found a series of conclusions who were detached after the debates about the quality of primary and secondary education in Romania, that was held with students from various faculties of the University Center Craiova.

From the analyse of the principal press articles with about this subject, posts, commentaries, blogs or even tutoring offers, it retains the attention over the of opinion polarization about the utility in accessing the additional preparation, actuality and the necessity of fiscal requirements of these activities, also the most opinions that were explicated in online by the teachers highlights the immoral character of additional preparation that were hold with their pupils from class.

This study does not following to express useless assertions "as value" about the normality of fiscal requirement of any services carried out systematically are bringing additional revenue constant. We are interested to find those areas over which it must intervene to increase the chances for quality education and training the students, given their interest in personal development and professional development.

The tutoring in Romania - a radiography of the moment

Analysing the subject of tutoring separated from the school programs, manuals and teachers' formation is representing from the beginning a step that its assuming a considerable limit. All of them are systematically interrelated, but the structuralism of our approach has as right aim to highlight its part of tutoring, its analyse, for the purpose of subsequent knowledge of the subtile manners in which they are bound and are influencing the others.

Past

Obviously that from the moment of the first appearances of humanity's cognitive accumulation has existed both persons who are willing to knowledge and persons who are willing to share. We will not inventory here, how in the present, the assimilable preparation of the tutoring in the present has evolved over the historical epochs.

Of interest for us is a perspective of Romania's modern cultural history over the tutoring phenomenon, situated in agreement with our epistemological vision, presented by Mihai Maci, lecturer at University of Oradea (8).

According to this, in the period 1970-1980, in Romania had increased competition to acceptance to Romanian faculties, where the diploma of superior studies was the most efficient way of a faster urbanization, associated on consequently way with increasing the difficulty of entrance in exams (in the 80s, the exams begun to be more technical and mechanical in oder to have a rigours tiebreaker of what the period ment „the reality of 20 candidates on one single place") is consisting the favorable context to a rigorous tutoring. In that period, practically, the exam was reduced to a verification of the correspondence between the written text in the exam's paper and the existent text in the manuals' page, fact that had led to an explosion in the industry of tutoring (8). A careful analyse of the moment is allowing us to affirm that was the beginning in declining the apogee of what creativity and imagination meant in favor to promote the capacity to memorize, frequently mechanical, phenomenon that is still continuing in many schools and here and there in the Romanian University centre. The impact in the plan of philological development and the conceptions evolution about performance in learning remains negative and major (Vlăduțescu, Bunăiașu & Strungă, 2014; Vlăduțescu & Smarandache, 2014).

The teachers (especially in high schools and Universities) did on personal account and on their personal benefits a job which the school was less capable to do in that timeThe tutoring were increased the level of knowledge and education on the fund of minimal investation in the educational system (8). However we appreciate that this had negative and lasting effect over the majority professors from Romania on the notion's content of *learning* and *knowledge* and is continuing to exercise a devastating influence over the formation of students personalities, becoming just a harsh reality of the mnemonics manuals, commentaries and tip-problems from the collections represent, in psychological plan, an interior exercise of precise adequacy to an exterior solicitation, a step of learning conditional to a formulation of a prompt response and efficiently to an order (8).

„This exercise of the discipline' absurdity (of learning text by route, formulas and phrase as flat as they are abstract), of the obedience of type *perinde ac cadaver* (that is consisting in reproducing mot-à-mot of the learned text), *was*...even worse, ***is***...(n.a) in the last instance, an efficient exercise in learning the young what is subjection and obedience" (8).

In accord with Mihai Maci, we consider that „the teacher, in his turn, is reduced to a simple role of repeater. Is clearly that in this game, his knowledge is not entering in his domain....; he had to teach the pupils according to the manual and the debiting it in imposed formulas for the exam. But just practising-as author of manuals, commentaries and subject for examn and as tutor and corrector-always that discipline of repetition where the teacher reaches to substitute his

thinking with a mechanical formalism. To fall from the liberty of thinking and from the Balkan'scharmto a formulation in the formal stereotypical manual-this was the destiny of the teacher in the years '70-'80...A culture of manual, commentary and tutoring" (8).

Returning with the analyse in the present, does we are notfinding in many cases perfectly encase semanticaly in the lyrics of the poem *Gloss* by Mihai Eminescu, „*Time will come and time will fly; All is old, but new in kind;...*?"

A financed study by European Committee shows us that in Romania, in the year 2007, 27% from the highschool's pupils did tutoring, in 2010, 50% from the adults questioned said that they hired private teachers for their children and that, in the same year, 30% from the students that were doing tutoring with their teacher from the class (Bray, M., 2001), (7).

Present

In the present, in Romania, these activity of supplying educational services, which are bringing constant incomes are not governed. Supplementary preparation by pupil's teachers it was going to be sanctioned. However, the provision was excluded by the new Law of Education right before it was adopted (1). Thus, in the present there is not any regulation where the teachers who do tutoring their pupils from class can be sanctioned, but they are remaining in an interest conflict.

Instead, it was elaborated „*Cod de etică pentru învățământul preuniversitar*" that is functioning, as it is mention in art. 2, „as a moral contract between parent/legal tutor, pupils, local community and differing class of staff from primary and secondary educational system, but as a standards' system of collegial conduits too, capable to contribute to the institutional coesition and groups of implicated persons in educational activity, through the formation and maintaining a climate based on cooperation and competition after correctly rules" (2). We do not consider necessary to add any furthermore comment.

Another moral and legal problem is representing by the state taxes and the releasing a receipt for the payment service provided. Thus, according to a study that was realised by the Fundația Dinu Patriciu, „just 9% from pupils are receiving the receipt for tutoring" (3).

However, according to the data of National Agency of Fiscal Administration, in 2014, at local level, the number of teachers that had declared their obtained incomes from tutoring had reached, comparative with the previous year, with approximately a fifth from 2.167 taxpayers, to 2.577 (12). The same site (12) presents a repartition on counties of the number of teachers that had declared the obtained incomes from tutoring to be taxed. Thus, 275 of persons had declared incomes from this type of activity in București and Ilfov county, 309 in Ploiești, 310 in Iași, 205 in Craiova, 132 in Brașov, 227 in Galați, 899 in Cluj and 220 in Timișoara (12).

Obviously, these number don't reflect the reality, fact revealed as we will see by our study. In the last years, the tutoring has known organized forms

underway, similarly with the situation from the other european and asian states. It appeared these private centres of education, complementary with the state's education institutes that are addressing to primary and secondary school, but also to the adults. These processes are working in general in the big cities where the family are affording to pay between 70 and 120 lei by tutoring session (10).

A realised study by Daedalus Millward Brown in the year 2008 has evaluated at 320 millions euro the market of tutoring from Romania, and the researchers has observed that in two years has registered an increase by 60%. The calculation are relative, and the amounts are probably higher, many teachers are refusing to recognize the phenomenon (14). Untill the present, many attempts of the Romanian state to taxed the incomes by the tutoring market had fallen and it remained just the variant of coercition.

Our study is proposing a possible solution, but it deserves to remember the other solution from the european states as France who „managed to include the tutoring in a larger category of services that are performed at the beneficiary's home, in which we find housekeeping, gardening or baby sitting" (14). We appreciate a change of a legislative authority strategy meant to convince the parent to accord financial stimulants in way to work with *authorized providers*, and would lead to an increasing occupancy, but also to a higher budget revenues.

Through the formation of some accreditation and control committees specializing in support of assistance service at person, obligated to take the legal steps both in terms of taxes payable by the provider and by organizing of a tax system fiscal deductions for the beneficiary, the state would benefit in centralizing and convergening for all the services and obligations in the specialised organisms (14). Germany and Spain are proceeding in the same way where the control of fiscal regularity is proving to be more simple and efficient.

About the pheonomen of tutoring in the world

Obviously, the phenomenon of tutoring is not one Romanian specifically. Schooling "in private" is in expanding in Europe and Asia, (15). Some indicated numbers by an European Committee study shows that:

-in 2007, in France, in the large highschools from Paris, approximately 75% from pupils were following private courses;

-in 2010, in Germany, 14, 8% from total number of pupils were tutoring;

-in 2000, in Greece, 50% from pupils were tutoring since the first year of school. In 2010, almost all the pupils that were in the last year were tutoring;

-in 2011, in Hungary, 60,5% from the pupils were tutoring in the secondary cycle of education.

The estimated amounts were spending annually by the european pupils' parents for tutoring their children (6), (15). Thus:

	Country	Study/estimate year	The anual value estaimed by the tutuoring market
1.	Austria	2010	126 millions de euro
2.	Cyprus	2008	111 millions de euro
3.	France	2007	2.21 billions de euro (with a raised 10% on year)
4.	Germany	2010	942 to 1468 millions de euro
5.	Greece	2008	952 millions de euro
6.	Italy	2010	420 millions de euro
7.	Romania	2010	300 millions de euro
8.	Spain	2010	450 millions de euro

Tabel 1

The same study of the European Committee catches the attention that if the phenomenon is left unattended, it will have consequence by dividing the social classes (Ionescu, 2005).

We appreciate that the situation is becoming alarming in the context of institutionalization and franchising the additional courses, of preparation in transforming this type of tutoring in business (Ionescu, 2013; Dumitru, Motoi & Budica, 2015). The economical entities are contributing equally to field's taxation, as well as the educational widening gap and training between rich and poor. To this result, it is contributing the tacit acceptation of the interest's conflict generated by the fact that the same teachers who are teaching both in public education and private competing companies.

The cited study (6, 15) highlights the practice of tutoring granted by teachers from the class is ”problematicaly”, adding the risk that ”the teachers are reducing the effort in the class with the purpose to raise the number of the pupils who will request their services outside the school”, also to the pupils who participated in tutoring are suffer of favoritism.A special situation identified during our investigation by documenting theme is the particular case of South Korea.In this country, the educational program is 7 days and the school supplementary preparation daily is until late hours, it is an institutionalized practice as so-called ”Academies of tutoring” that are function over school hours (named as ”hagwons”) (20).

This phenomenon of ”educational masochism” (11) is existing in South Korea and it is generated on the one hand by the part where the pupils are signing up in oder to access in one of the three top Universities from the country, by the poor level of quality in educational offers, and on the other hand by the pressure of the parents in the race for a better education for their children. After a year of preparation, with 14 hours by day of tutoring, approximately 70% pupils are succeed to be accepted to one of the three top university from South Korea. The medium price payed by a parent in tutoring his child is 2600 dollars a year.

Thus, South Korea is considerated the apogee of the extreme education and it is on the first place for the obsession in education in a ranking realised by Pearson, with the support of Economist Intelligence Unit, about of the performance educational system (20)...but sometimes not so efficient!

Through comparative, the experts are considering the Finland's example which is the single european country where its pupils obtained constantly comparable result with the South Korean at the tests for the pupils of 15 years old, coordinated by the Organisation For Economic Cooperation and Development. In Finland, the expenses for the public and private education system are combined for a pupil and it is representing a smaller amount than for a student from South Korea and just 13% from Finland's pupils are tutoring after school.

Study and interpretations

Starting from these premises, we propose that through this study to identify the possible causes of this social phenomenon, its positive and negative valances, the aspects of ethical and moral order that are staying on this base, also to formulate several proposals regarding possible solutions that we will lead to limitaiting/eliminating the negative consequences.

In the psihosociology's acceptance, ”tutoring with the teacher from the class is consisting a phenomenon named *tolerated deviance*, where everyone know that the ethical, professional and legal (we may add) standards are breaking, but the implicated people-teachers, parents and pupils-maintain a tacit accord that is bringing secondary benefits: material for teachers and symbolical for children and their parents” (16).

The problem is that people are not understanding the serious consequences of tutoring, the most serious cause is that the grade from the class is not reflecting the reality and often, parents are surprised by the obtained result of their children at the national exams (16).

In this context, 300 students of the first year (the university year 2015-2016) from different faculties from University of Craiova had accepted to be the subjects of a research's explorer based on questionnaire, where their offered responses (in quality of recent ex highschool students) made the object of a generating interpretations of interesting conclusion.

Thus, we keep that 271 from they (90,3%) were tutoring in the period of highschool. The percentage is important and it shows that the tutoring is consisting on a parallel national educational system (we are not convinced that the term ”complementar” is corect choise). Plus, we don't have the number of pupils that were tutoring, but they didn't manage to become students from various reasons.

Our study has become interesting to identify which are the disciplines that the pupils were tutoring. So, we identify the following disciplines: mathematics (198 from the cases-73%), foreign languages (173 from responses-63,8%),

Romanian language (157-57,9%) and other disciplines (51-18,8%). We ascertain from this analyse of these numbers that many subjects were tutoring to more than a discipline.

We wished to find what are the reasons that are staying at the decision base in accessing this modality of tutoring (we may add, without to develop the subject, to the detriment of individual study).

A analysis of this reference phenomenon realised in online, it shows us that the tutoring can be divided in many categories, but the most relevant are:

a) the necessary tutoring to promote the class (the pupil is weak at a discipline or he is disinterested for the discipline);
b) ”fițe” tutoring (the pupils don't need, but the other colleagues are doing it, and in many time the chosen teacher has the most high price because the parents are affording it);
c) Tutoring for performance (the pupil is participating in contest and he likes to be one of the best);
d) Tutoring for an exam (they have a unique and clearly aim, promoting that exam).

In this context, the 271 subjects of our study that were questioned regarding the causes that determined them to be tutoring, offered the responses which we organized in this way:

-for better grades at National Evaluation, Exam of Capacity or Bacalaureat;
-because the teacher didn't explain the discipline well;
-to know more;
-to promote the exam of admission in superior educational system;
-to performe at olympics and school contests;
-because their parents wanted to.

In this moment, we don't consider important to identify which responses has the highest percentage. We just withhold the fact that a signification number of answers (83-30,6%) that the definitely decision was ”the teacher don't explain well the discipline”, but the causes may be multiple and easily to be intuitive.

Also, we mention another posts that was identified online and it is about that ”the teacher teaches (or he manages to teach) in the class just a part of the school program and by that, he put pressure as on pupils as on parents in order to appeal to tutoring...” (13). We didn't consider this satisfying and we proposed to refine the investigation of the teachers' reference for behaviour cause.

Starting from the extracted observation from the online according that „it may exist conditioning/determinating a situation of the pupils or parents where the teachers to appeal to tutoring with the pupils from the class” (13), we had addressed to our subjects the question: ”did you felt conditioned by the grade received from the teacher which you participated to tutoring?”. Even if may seem that we see from a subjectivism part, the answers are alarming, 63 from the subjects (23,2%) were answered affirmative, 182 (67,1%) negative and 26 (9,6%) didn't have a clearly answered.

We managed to find out if the pupils' evaluation was influenced by the participation to tutoring, specially with the children from the class. At the question ”the teacher were objective in the evaluation of those we didn't take part at their tutoring?”, the subjects answers don't need any furthermore commentary: 122 (45%) answered yes, 129 (47%) no and 20 (7,3%) don't know.

A more serious problem is that in this condition, in our study, at the question ”who you were tutoring?”, the 271 subjects had formulated answers that shows us that 178 (65,6%) were tutoring with the teacher from the class, 64 (23,2%) with the teacher from the school, 43 (15,8%) with the other teachers and 27 (10%) with other persons.

The teachers behaviour associated with this phenomenon can fit at facts of corruption, while being contrary to the rules of integrity about the job as a teacher (Negrea, 2014; Mogonea & Ștefan, 2014). It may seem obviously that in this situations is circumscribe the conflict of interests in education where instead of banning them, to sanction them, we just tolerated them and we ”teach it” as life lesson for the children and young people where it result that is representing a motivational break in the effort of auto-learning, auto-educationing and auto-formating (Ștefan, Bunăiașu & Strungă, 2012; Siminica & Traistaru, 2013; Bușu, 2015).

We wanted also to find what is the satisfaction grade of the pupils in the report with the information and knowledge acquired in tutoring. In this sense, our subjects were asked to give a note from 1 to 10 (on a Likert Scale) for the quality of the tutoring received. The conclusion from the analyse of the answers is eloquence: the satisfaction in the case of those who were tutoring by the teacher from the class was appreciative to a 6,5, for the teacher from school they have 7,8, for the other teacher an 8,8 and for the other persons with 9,1.

In this study, we asked the problem of evaluation's objectivity given by tutoring. We asked the 271 subjects what was the difference between the grades from the final evaluation from tutoring and from National Evaluation, Capacity and Bacalaurent; the answers are highlighted in the following tabel:

Difference	**Number of answers**	**(%)**
0 – 50 hundredths	61	22.5
50 hundredths – 1 point	78	28,7
1 point – 2 points	113	41,6
Over 2 points	9	3,3
I don't remember	10	3,6

Tabel 2

According to the affirmation of the subjects, we observe that the differences emphasize a medium objective that is reflected as a difference on a medium value as 1 point. What is bringing the attention is the number of 113

answers (41,6) which places the difference between the grades from final evaluation from tutoring and from National Evaluation in 1-2 points.

Although we don't evidentiate the necessity of fiscal requirment, the obtained incomes from these activity are consisting the object of the research, we included in the questionnaire administrated by our subjects who participated at the study the following question: ”Did you receive receipt for tutoring?”. The answers did not permitted any furthermore commentary: Yes-3; No-268.

In order to get incomes more and more high, the teachers are not tutoring just to a single pupil, in fact they are organizing the children in groups. We asked our subjects: ”how many persons were you in the tutoring group?”.

Number of person - tutoring group	**Number of answers**	**(%)**
1-2 persons	83	30,6
3-4 persons	131	48,3
For 4 persons	57	21,1

Table 3

Conclusion and propouses

In Romania there are teachers with complete department who offer supplementary courses to raise their incomes; often this activity require tutoring with their own pupils from the class.

In many cases, the teachers who are tutoring are getting used to give to pupils higher grades that they deserve in order to show the parents that they don't pay in vain and that the children are learning there. The all scenario is reveled by the grades that children are obtaining at National Evaluation, Bacalaureat and examn of acceptance to faculty (Dima, Man & Vladutescu, 2012; Staiculescu, Enachescu & Dobrea, 2014; Maciuc & Ștefan, 2016).

Also, it is known that the teachers who are tutoring their pupils are not declaring their supplementary incomes.

We don't contest the positive values and valances that the tutoring has over the pupils, which they take part to this supplementary form of education for different reasons (Voinea, Busu, Opran & Vladutescu, 2015; Teodorescu & Busu, 2015; Voinea, Negrea & Teodorescu, 2016).

We will not undertake any SWOT analyse of the phenomenon of tutoring in Romania. There are some advantages, but also disadvantage, it exist pro and contra argument-all are caught in online (Călin & Bunăiașu, 2010; Bunăiașu, 2014; Bunăiașu, Vlăduțescu & Strungă, 2014) .

We withhold the *advantages/arguments of pro-tutoring*:

- cover the existence gaps in pupil's knowledge;

- raising pupils confidence, regaining the taste of success and the pleasure in knowing;

- ensuring the access to a performance for the pupils that are attending scholar contest and olympics;

- to compensate for lack of skills and interests expressed by some teachers in the classroom;

- ensuring fulfillment of passion and the thirst for knowledge that some students have in relation to a material or another;

-compensating for missing/lack of discipline in the curriculum needed to pass entrance examinations in some colleges 'niche' (see architecture).

Disadvantages/contra-tutoring arguments are grouping in:

- legitimizing through in action of the phenomenon of interests conflict in the educational system in Romania;

- unfairness and subjectivism of collaborating with forgery of correct feedback in the evaluation of the majority of teacher that are tutoring with the pupils from the class or from the school;

- favoring the emergence of inappropriate and immoral behavior by the teacher, in the approach to have many students in tutoring (pupils paradigms who are going to tutoring just that they will not ”fail” and that for teachers to not take "grudge" - everything in order to raise their incomes) (18);

- the inefficiency of a group that has more than 2 pupils;

- tutoring may destroy the appetite of individual learning and it may favorizing the mechanical learning (pupils are learning just what they are receiving);

- attracted by material gains and marked by difficulty of leaving the "comfort zone" in teaching's effort, he loses his professional interest to teach pupil how to learn;

- appearance, in cases of parents and children to a frustration of material order, generating by the families with modest financial resources.

As we affirmed at the beginning of our demarche, our study, through the analyses and conclusions, is proposing to constitute the studied phenomenon, in an addressed message to decidents from the education, but also to present a series of proposes for possible solutions, organized under a set of recommendations with imperative character who are concrete in strict regimentation and specifically legislation necessary to reduce the negative consequences that the tutoring in Romania:

1. The maximum number of pupils in a class should be-25 (it is known thorugh the fact that the management of a large number has a major negative impact over the organization of teaching and over the class management), in case of not respecting this stipuation, the unit of education will be withdrawn their autorizaiton;
2. The obligatively to sign an education contract between the principale actors of the educational act(school as institution who manage the teaching departamentand the parents and pupils, with rights, obligations and cleary responsabilities. Through these, it may include the banning of tutoring-

teacher and pupils from class, respecting an interior order regulamentation, presence at hours, etc);

3. Banning teacher to tutoring pupils in the unity of education where they are teaching or where they are conduting their professional activity;
4. Installing in each class a functionally audio-video system with online accessibility for each person allowing "live" viewing the mode of conduct of teaching, with storage of the sunet and the image for 6 month.

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THE SOCIAL INTEGRATION OF THE ROMA IN THE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Despite the fact that human rights are universal, they are frequently broken to the disadvantage of certain groups. These are often marginal groups or communities inside a country. The manner in which marginal groups are treated and the way they interact with the rest of the population differs from one country to another. Generally speaking, the policies regarding minorities range from integration to segregation and from assimilation to granted rights. Assimilation is that policy a minority is facing according to which the minority is forced to embrace the culture of the majority. This is accomplished by means of coercive measures which try to 'civilize' the minority and to force the members of the marginal groups to obey well established cultural standards. The Roma have often been the target of this type of assimilation policies in many European countries especially during the communist regimes. Integration is often considered a superior alternative to assimilation. Integration policies result in "the insertion with full rights of the individual in society" while respecting at the same time individual as well as cultural rights. This article intends to emphasise the need to integrate the Roma children in the Romanian educational system thus proving that in an open society, the tolerance towards cultural diversity, the social skills accumulated during school years and the amount of expectations-obligations at relationship levels are supposed to have a positive impact on the personal development of the Roma children.

Keywords: social integration, marginalization, ethnic identity, minority, racial discrimination, education.

1. Introduction

The education of Roma children is one of the challenges which social, economic and civic environments in Romania are facing. This is part of a larger set of problems which involve the education of children excluded or marginalized for different reasons. All these needs differentiated approaches depending on various specific parameters: residence environment, the sense of belonging to a marginal, ethnic group, belonging to a social group with a minimal economic status.

Marginalization represents the process of placing the individuals or the groups at a peripheral social status or of isolation and it implies limiting their access to economic, political, educational, communicative resources of the community. From this perspective, marginalization means placing individuals and groups below the minimal level accepted from the economic, residential occupational and educational point of view, and it also materializes in a lack of possibilities of self-assertion and participation in the life of the community. (Zamfir and Vlăsceanu, 1993)

Marginal groups usually consist of the poor, the unemployed, ethnic minorities which are strongly discriminated against, delinquents, people unable to adapt, or people with disabilities. (Zamfir and Vlăsceanu, 1993)

2. Context

The absurd equalizing or better said standardizing policy of the individual promoted by the communist regimes in Eastern Europe had resulted in hesitations in accepting their social identity. The conclusion to be drawn is that before 1989 due to a policy which had as a purpose the diminishing of social differences and the "recruiting" of the whole population in a system there were no obvious marginalization processes of the Roma at the level of public institutions even though prejudices, stereotypy and discriminatory attitudes still existed among the non-Roma population.

However after 1989 the quick and intense social changes gave rise to serious and unpredictable problems during the process of institutionalization and democratic consolidation in society. (Rakadjiiska, 1996, p. 217).

Moreover the transition to a market economy also generated a process of social polarization and of marginalization.

The causes which triggered and maintained this process of marginalization consist, in their turn, of many factors that we are going to try to present as factors leading to marginalization in this particular case of the Roma children.

1.1. Social Factors

Alongside with the democratic changes which occurred, after 1989 the liberalization of the social relations also took place. As a consequence of this liberalization the equalizing - coercive forces disappeared, the social domain allowing the manifestation of group identities as well as that of prejudices, stereotype or discrimination which had been latent.

On the other hand within minorities there were groups with deviant or even delinquent behavior, which beside the social danger they represented had an extremely negative impact on the way the majority regarded them and they maintained a discriminatory even racist behavior.

This type of manifestations generate and maintain a tense, latently conflictual atmosphere between minority and majority each in its turn feeling threatened.

Members of the Roma community, regardless of the country they live in, have several things in common, i.e. their marginal social status and lack of various rights and even perspectives. In the past, the members of the Roma community were not recognised as such and did not enjoy equality of rights. Nationalism, which is currently on the rise, also casts a shadow on their place in society. (Nicu, 2014)

1.2. Economic Factors

The changes in the economic life, the inflation, unemployment, the excessive differentiation of income, as well as the decrease of the standard of living, the shortage of dwelling places, all made an important contribution to the appearance and growth of the marginalization phenomenon and gave birth to a category of economically marginalized people.

From the point of view of social costs, one of the most vulnerable categories during transition was the Roma minority**,** because it had already been on high risks position: being poorly qualified they were seriously affected by unemployment, those who earned their living based on complementary economy became jobless and the activity of collecting and rendering profitable reusable materials dropped dramatically during that period.

On the other hand, the decrease in income and of the state allowance for children led to the dramatic decrease of the living standard for most of the Roma population and this crises was also aggravated by the pro-natality policy of the previous regime as it triggered other extremely serious consequences: lack of hygiene inside the dwellings, difficulties in keeping a satisfactory personal hygiene, risks regarding intimacy, promiscuity as well as difficulties regarding the education of the Roma children and teenagers and the way they socialize. (Zamfir and Vlasceanu, 1993)

In fact because of the low standard of living many Roma families gave up sending their children to school after 1989. The conditioning of state allowance by school attendance had a significantly positive influence on the school attendance of these children. Unfortunately, we cannot say that as a result of this decision the quality of the educational act improved.

1.3. Political and ethnic factors

In the period which followed December 1989 the Roma did not represent an ethnic community which was discriminated because they were not given the right to represent an ethnic community free to promote their own cultural traditions. The policy at that time was for them to be assimilated.

Alongside with the liberalization and democratization of the society a process of emancipation of the different ethnic, religious minorities occurred. Although they began shaping their identity they were also marginalized by the majority.

We need to notice the fact that this reaction is an universal one and is not

characteristic to Romania, all over the world the ”rejected” belong to those categories which can no longer be assimilated by the dominant norms.

The democratization of the political life and the rise of many parties offered presented the ethnic minorities with the opportunity of being represented politically. Group identity (ethnic) was not well shaped at the beginning of the ‘90s and as a result, in order to enhance legitimacy, the political leaders led a campaign of exacerbation the identity of the minority to the disadvantage of what citizenship meant.

In order to redefine ethnic group identity the political leaders offered the identity of Roma as an alternative to that of *“gypsy*” seen as having a negative meaning and therefore stigmatized by the majority. The result was a gap existent even within the ethnic group between *Roma* (representing the political, intellectual and economic elite) and *gypsies (*representing the masses, those who felt ignored, manipulated or betrayed by the political leaders).

In the context of a reordered Europe where they were considered “common inheritance”, the Roma have become something for the European institutions to reflect on, a criteria of adhesion for Eastern European countries.

Most Southern and Eastern European governments have already joined a number of international treaties on the protection of minorities. These treaties are yet to be fully implemented but they exist nonetheless in written form and can be used anytime. In the meantime, however, the greatest dilemma seems to be the lack of measures against rising social exclusion and the fact that relevant educational and work inclusion policies are adopted and implemented only shyly and after much hesitation. (Nicu, 2014)

The only acceptable and viable alternative to the problem of marginalization would be on the one hand a coherent policy to prevent it and integration on the other hand, although integration is a term currently rejected by most of the Roma leaders.

The cause is the faulty understanding of the idea of integration which is fragmentarily perceived and is only seen as assimilation. In reality, integration means a relationship, a dynamic interaction between the system which is integrated and the one which integrates, the outcome being a functional balance of the parties involved.

2. Analysis of possible solutions

In Romania, as a unitary and indivisible state, if a Romanian citizen of any ethnic group has a problem of social integration, the public authorities have a legal obligation to identify the causes of the problem and find the solution to solve it. Civil society and the citizen in question have a moral obligation to work with public authorities to resolve the issue. (Nicu, 2014, p. 23)

However we have to keep in mind that social integration has four fundamental dimensions, that is: first of all cultural then normative, communicational and functional integration. If cultural integration means the

coherence of the norms and values of a culture, normative integration represents the proportion in which group values become, in fact, norms. However this requirement on the behalf of the majority to comply with its norms, is often understood as a tendency of assimilation.

In Romania there is a significant percent of Roma which are considered integrated at present, at least at the functional and normative level. The members of the intellectual and economic elite are the best integrated. Also, those having a medium level of education or modern jobs are well enough integrated from the social point of view. The factors which can and must decide the improvement of the functional integration process of the Roma in the "intercultural society" are: the educational system, media, social assistance and the people in charge on behalf of the government. They all have the duty to elaborate a coherent policy regarding all ethnic minorities in Romania, a policy which takes into account respecting the rights of all minorities as well as eliminating and anticipating discriminatory and racist behaviors.

However, in general Roma families have many children, the unemployment rate is higher, they do unskilled labour and the living standard is below average. The Roma are facing segregation in schools, discrimination in society and a high risk of poverty.

Precisely because of these the government and the civil society have taken many initiatives which deal with the problem of the social exclusion of the Roma.

The Ministry of Education and Scientific Research, in partnership with other international organizations (UNICEF, Roma Criss, Phoenix Foundation and other non-governmental organizations) has elaborated and implemented a series of projects which focus on stimulating the Roma children to take part in classes and at the same time avoid their abandoning school and help their social integration.

In order to rise their level of integration and education, the project Equal Chances was founded. This project was meant to improve the extremely difficult situation of the Roma children from Romania by implementing a school development model, by making the institutional changes easier and by involving the Roma parents and children in school life. The strategy adopted by the promoters of the programme focuses on the idea of producing institutional changes and encouraging actions which will allow a better adaptation of these children to school life this playing a crucial part in increasing their later success.

Therefore, the access of Roma children to high quality education represents a complex problem which needs to be approached comprehensively. Its complexity comes from the diversity of the educational contexts in which it takes place at present as well as from the influence of some environmental, social, economic factors with a direct or mediated impact on formal education.

The paradigms which are likely to approach the problem of the equal access to a quality education successfully would be:

- Education as a form of investing in the social capital;

- Education as a form of investing in human capital;
- Education as a form of imitating the inequalities existent within the social system;
- Education as a means of conveying values.

Regardless the paradigms the existence of schools with a large number of Roma students has *high opportunity costs* both for the families of these children and for the society in its whole. In other words, the "choice" of this type of school means low level of social and human capital for the Roma as well as an inferior social position within the existent social stratification. Assuming that these children study in Romanian schools, which are ethnocentric from the point of view of the curriculum and from that of the ideologies of the teachers involved, the values acquired during school are likely to contribute to a low self esteem of the Roma children (Cherata, 2005).

The existence of the schools with numerous Roma children questions the progress in terms of social and human capital, social status which the Roma can gain from by educating themselves within the formal education system in Romania. The existence of the classes which are formed exclusively of Roma children also questions the benefits of formal education. Cultural diversity represents the premise of accumulating a high quality social capital which is at the same time functional in Romanian society. Not letting these children have diverse social and ethnic relationships within the school/ classroom would mean depriving them of future social opportunities such as finding a job by means of informal relations. More generally speaking it would mean not allowing them to obtain a positive feedback concerning plans/ projects meant to be successful in Romanian society (Popescu & Ștefan, 2014).

School represents a social space where we accumulate social capital.

In the conditions offered by an open society tolerance towards cultural diversity, the social capital accumulated during school years, the amount of expectations-obligations at the relationship level are supposed to have a positive impact on the personal development of the Roma children. The human capital acquired by means of the formal education and having the advantage of cultural diversity is probably a justified one which triggers the possibility of vertical movement within the social structure.

No matter what paradigm the analysis of the problem of the access to a quality education is placed in, the variable "confidence in education" is a central one. If we lack confidence in formal education, the educational system becomes unable to function and education within the family becomes an alternative for some of the Roma parents, especially traditional Roma families, estimated at approximately at 3%-10% of the entire Roma population in Romania (Cherata, 2005).

The low level of the educational process in schools with a high number of Roma children is also the result of the migration of both teachers and students

within the Romanian educational system. In both cases the tendency to migrate, is from the direction of those schools poorly endowed both material and human resources towards better endowed schools. In the rural area, the destination of migration is represented by "central" schools considered as able to offer better opportunities of development for children. Isolated schools from the outskirts become in this situation deprived of human and material resources. Not only Romanian students and teachers are affected by this migration but also some of the Roma children who come from wealthier families. The causes of school migration of both students and teachers within the system are determined by the degree of trust invested in a school. We may assume that the higher the percentage of Roma children is in a school, the more probable it is for the confidence in that school to be low.

Another fact to be mentioned is that of the buildings where Roma children study. These buildings are older and more crowded, then, others and in most cases they do not have toilets inside the building and a library is out of question. Such schools have less qualified teachers, many of them are transferred especially teachers with grades between 1and 4 at the exams; 67% of "Roma" schools had a shortage of qualified teachers, and, at schools having more than 50% Roma children, the shortage was of more than 80% (Crai, 2012; Strechie, 2013; Bușu & Luchici, 2016).

Moreover, there are a series of social, economic, cultural problems which have serious consequences such as avoiding entering school, missing classes or the fact that these children abandon school. Other causes connected to the child include: poor health, problems with their psycho-intellectual development, their lack of motivation regarding the learning process, sexual differences, (according to which girls can get married early and their social role is that of bringing up children and of having a family), a low self-esteem and low grades at school. From what teachers say, two thirds of the Roma children which have abandoned education show lack of interest in school, over 20% develop rejection attitudes and only 10% have a positive attitude towards school.

A study ("Roma in search for self esteem") carried out in 90 schools from Bucharest and other nine counties showed that in 67% of these institutions, Roma children were segregated. A similar study from 2007 revealed that, in Roma communities from Romania 23% of those questioned had no education, and only 27% had graduated primary school. Only 20 % of the Roma children attend pre-school classes compared to 52% children belonging to the families of the majority and other ethnic groups (Crai, 2012).

Some are hasty and blame the parents. Sociological studies show that the school results of a child are directly influenced by his/her mother's education. Taking into consideration the reduced number of Roma girls who attend school and who reach a high educational level, the perspectives are extremely pessimistic.

Although it is easier to blame the parents "the lack of culture" generated

by poverty it would be advisable to look into things more closely (Crai, 2012; Ciuperca & Ciuperca, 2015; Călin, 2015; Motoi & Dumitru, 2016).

Anyone who has dealt with the bureaucratic procedure regarding the child's entrance in a school knows what we mean. To enter a child in a school the employees ask for more documents than those stipulated in the law. For example, they often ask for a birth certificate although the law does not require it. In addition to this some ask for medical exams, which is a real problem for a community where most of its members have never heard of a family doctor.

3. Conclusion

The problems that Roma children are dealing with are numerous and complex and there are no quick solutions. All studies focusing on the conditions in which Roma children live show them as being below standard and at the same time jeopardizing their health. The health of these children forces many of them to abandon school, even not go to school at all. Extreme poverty also affects the rate of coverage and school attendance. A numerous family which leaves in poverty, as it is the case with many Roma families from our country, difficultly manages to cover the costs of education. Clothing, books, footwear and so on are often too expensive for these families representing for them more of a luxury then a necessity. In the families with no income, the adults sometimes try to overcome the situation by sending their children to work at an early age. Older children often have to take care of their younger brothers. These are only a few problems of health and protection which keep these children away from school.

The dramatic impact of the stigma attached to the Roma communities affects the Roma children dramatically (Bălan, 2006; Sandu, 2009; Ignat, Stoian & Roșca, 2014). This stigma makes the Roma children turn away from the outside world and ruins their expectations. Even teachers have little expectations in what concerns them because of the negative stereotype existing in society. This fact has a powerful secondary impact regarding these children's own school expectations (Teodorescu, 2015; Deniz & Hamarta, 2016).

The damage made by the social injustice called discrimination has deeply scared the Roma children. All of us without exception have the duty to change things.

Years ago, many efforts were made by the public institutions to improve the situation of the Roma children. Moreover, many positive initiatives were taken to promote their rights and those of all other categories of children which were considered vulnerable (Grant, 2009; Rosca, 2015; Enachescu & Tarabay, 2016). However, for various reasons the results did not show up as quickly as we had expected.

UNICEF together with the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research and a group of non-governmental organizations, both Roma and non-Roma have started a few programmes in order to help Roma children to go to school because by means of a quality education they can surpass exclusion (the first step was the access to early educational programmes and parental education.)

In order to make progress three steps are important:

a) to give priority to the implementation of the polices adopted by the competent Romanian authorities

b) to extrapolate the best methods taking into account the particular features and the diversity of the Roma communities (there is no single approach able to fit any situation, but in similar conditions similar measures can be taken) and

c) to monitor the situation of the Roma children and the progress made by the measures taken.

The genuine involvement of the authorities and the support given to Roma families in order to ensure them a decent life, work places, solving the uncertain situations concerning their identity papers as well as counseling them could all contribute to the improvement of their situation and to that of their children.

A constant and coherent social policy at the local and national level represents the only solution to improve the situation of the Roma by offering their children a better future and the opportunity to enjoy their rights.

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SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS IN THE EDUCATIONAL FIELD. COGNITIVE VARIABLES IN DIDACTIC COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

Human communication is not based solely on oral expression; it is a system with multiple channels because gestures, facial expressions, body position and even silence are acts of communication that conveys a meaning. They show the nature of the social bond existing or desired.

Based on the above idea I propose an approach to teaching communication from a psychosocial perspective. The theory behind this perspective on communication is that of the social representations. This theory helped to define, in the social psychology's area of research, directions which proved to be particularly fruitful for the analysis and understanding of individual interaction processes, intra-or intergroup.

Keywords: Social Representation, Commnunication, Didactic communication, Cognitive variables, Self Representation, Representation of others

Introduction

Known through Shannon, more as a technical situation, over time, communication has evolved and become, among other things, the object of study of social psychology. This perspective emphasizes that communication is a set of processes to exchange information and meanings between people who are in a particular situation. For social psychologists communication is an interaction, a dynamic phenomenon involving a transformation. Basically, communication is not only the transmission of information from a sender to a receiver, and vice versa, but it assumes the existence of two interlocutors who are in interaction. The actors that Shannon calls as sender and receiver are designated, from the psycho-social perspective, with the term "locutors" and are influenced in the process of communication by three types of variables: psychological, cognitive and social. I will first highlight the novelty that brings the study of communication theory of social representations, comparing it to the classical theory of Shannon. Next I will analyze how cognitive variables affect the didactic communication, from the general pattern of communication offered by Jean-Claude Abric (1999).

1. Social Representations in Communication

The understanding of communication differs depending on the area in which it is addressed from different perspectives of researcher's data, so we can

talk about a variety of meanings of the concept of communication. One can see two major models of analysis of the communication that currently dominate the research field: a technical model, arising from the cybernetic approach and reflections and a psycho-sociological model, a result of the researches in social psychology. The model developed by Shannon (1948; 1952), within the information theory, has experienced considerable success. (Jakobson 1963) This is the result of research conducted by a number of specialists in telecommunications, supported in their work by a number of mathematicians, and answers a crucial question at that time for the telecommunications industry: how to improve the delivery of information - a signal - from one point to another, or, in other words, how such a message can be transmitted with optimal efficiency? (Vlăduțescu 2013a, 2013b)

Shannon defines communication as a transmission of a message from one place to another. Communication components are: sender, receiver, channel of communication and code. Transmitting the message is going from a sender by encoding and decoding operations to the receiver, and, in reverse, to the sender to establish a feedback. Emerged in the context of cybernetics, much appreciated by experts in information theory, Shannon's model was a real success among linguists of the time (Robins, 2004).

Jean-Claude Abric identifies two important drawbacks of the Shannon's model: first, it ignores completely that the communication involves individuals (or groups) who are undergoing a massive influence from psychological factors, social constraints, the systems of norms and values; secondly, it looks like a linear process communication (despite the fact that the feed-back is closing the system loop) and sequentially (Abric, 1999). Consequently Abric's definition of communication is different from that of Shannon: "Communication is the set of processes through which the exchange of information and meanings between individuals is realized in a given social situation" (Abric, 1999). This definition emphasizes the psychological specifics of human communication. This requires first an exchange of information, meanings. Thus, communication processes are essentially social; they are based on interaction and they are determined by it. Moreover, any communication is an interaction, so it appears as a dynamic phenomenon involving a transformation. Communication is subordinated to a process of mutual influence between several social actors. The conclusion is that we are not dealing with a sender and receiver, as Shanon argued, but interacting with two locutors: two interlocutors. Being based on interaction, communication is always a transaction between locutors. Sending the information and receiving it are simultaneous, and influenced by various psychological and social factors, so communication cannot be reduced to a mere transmission of information. Therefore communication is a social act, deliberately or unintentionally, consciously or not. This is in line with one of the axioms of new communications theorists: "One cannot not communicate." (Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson 1967).

Human communication is not based solely on oral expression; it is a system with multiple channels because gestures, facial expressions, body position and even silence are acts of communication that conveys a meaning. They show the nature of the social bond existing or desired. The theory underlying this understanding of communication is that of social representations. (Jodelet 1991, Curelaru 2006, 2001, Neculau 1997) The term of "social representation" send explicitly to the theory developed since 1963 by S. Moscovici. () He has reformulated the concept of collective representation of Durkheim, proposing a nearly new concept, which has proved a perfect tool adapted to the diversity and plurality of representations, which organizes the symbolic relations in our modern societies. (Moscovici 1984, 1988, 2011)

W. Doise states that communication shapes the social representations and helps them to circulate. One of most important functions of communication is in regulating the relations between social actors. Representations serve to maintain a way of relation between groups, specifically organizing cognitive and evolutionary approach to the social environment. (Doise, 1997). J.C. Abric (1999) considers that „communication always has a purpose, a goal that can be explicit, implicit, or unconscious".

2. Cognitive variables in the didactic communication

The fact that the theory of social representations and that of mental images is a useful tool for investigating the educational field is proven by numerous works (Seca 2013, Strungă 2014, Iucu and Strungă 2014) Next, I will emphasize some aspects of its application in the didactic communication.

Interlocutor's cognitive system has an important role in how communication is done. Our behaviour is determined by our own cognitive system, by our specific way of thinking, to process information and to solve problems. The cognitive system of the speakers has an impact on the language that they use, on the verbal and nonverbal codes they use. The reception of messages between sender and receiver is so dependent on their cognitive systems. On the level of the didactic communication this aspect is very relevant because what is communicated has a predominantly cognitive character. Thus, if the teacher does not use a communication of the ideas as close to the common language, using an academic language, rigorous but also rigid, he risks to not effectively send the informative message. In drafting a message, the teacher should start from considering the cognitive system of the "target", means the intellectual level of his students. You cannot talk to pupils in primary as some of the secondary, even if the information is basically the same, say events occurred in Romanian history.

An important component of the cognitive system is the way we represent ourselves, the world around and relationships with others. The representation system of students is essential in the didactic communication. For this reason we have chosen to approach in this paper the problem of communication between

teacher and student based on the theory of social representations. S. Moscovici (1997) stated that social representations should be seen as a specific way of understanding and communication, which creates both a reality and common sense.

J.C. Abric identifies three elements of the representation of the situation, which will play a key role in teacher-student communication: self, other, and the task to fulfil.

Self-representation includes the intimate Ego and the public Ego. The intimate Ego is the self-image of the individual, the way he is evaluating his own characteristics, his strengths and weaknesses. It's about how they consciously highlight his specificity, which, in his view, defines and distinguishes him from others. Specifically to the intimate Ego is that it is private, generally unknown to others and sometimes unexpressed publicly. That does not make it less important in determining individual behaviour. (Abric, 1999) Depending on how it perceives itself - as strong or weak - the student will adopt certain behaviour and the relationships he establishes with others will be entirely different. Similarly, the teacher who has a positive self-image will be able to be understood by students, to communicate effectively, but if he has a deficient self-image, then this will be visible by students, who will fail to relate to him, to achieve a communication educationally efficient. The Public self is said and expressed, is that image of ourselves that we give to the others, the way we present ourselves to them. He may be radically different from the intimate self (Abric, 1999). Some participants in the act of teaching (students and teachers) can provide a picture of themselves as very different from the real one. This can help a relationship of communication, but can be a real obstacle because the relationship will lose authenticity.

Representation of the other is the image of our communication partner, reflecting the way we perceive his personality, his psychological and cognitive characteristics, and his social status (Abric, 1999). If he has a favourable image about the teacher, the student will behave respectfully or friendly, but if the image is negative, it goes from no longer communicate or learn the course, up to absenteeism or sabotaging classes.

Representing the task or the context. Depending on the image it has about the task to fulfil, a student will adopt a certain intellectual attitude; will select problem-solving strategies and types of reasoning etc. Also, if a teacher wants to understand the nature of reactions and interactions that are established between him and students, and between students of a class, he will need to consider the meaning that they attribute to the context in which communication occurs.

Conclusions

The way in which the individual represents himself is essential in communication, because during this interaction he will behave according to the way it perceives and is perceived by others depending on context. He will adjust

its communication behaviour depending on how projecting himself in the eyes of others. These components of self-representation indicates that in every situation of interaction the individual will behave and react according to what it thinks is and what it wants to appear. The picture of itself will intervene in the situation of the didactic communication: in his behaviour adopted towards the student, the teacher can use a certain type of language or choose a different communication channel. Also, depending on the attitude he has towards students, the teacher can shape the image they have about themselves and how they want to appear in the eyes of others. The representation of the other will determine the nature of communication relations, perhaps as much as the self-representation. The finality of the communication is largely dependent on it.

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A HISTORICAL APPROACH ON THE CONCEPT AND THE DOMAIN OF EARLY EDUCATION

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Abstract

The empirical studies about the child`s psychological development appear under the form of biographical recordings of the children`s behaviour at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century. Thus, the researches about the child, childhood, preschool, early education go back in time and are organically connected with the didactic, pedagogical or psychological approaches of the human knowledge field. Referring to the knowing and the study of the child, there are two primary axes: the intellectual and the psycho-emotional development of the child.

Keywords: early education, preschool education, childhood, development stages

The first data referring to the concept and the domain of early education are descriptive and belong to pedagogy, (the Didactica magna treaty, 1627-1640, published in 1657, written by Jan Amos Comenius (1592-1670): pansofia, education will comply both with the child`s intimate nature and with the surrounding nature`s laws, "the metaphysical harmony" defined by G. G. Antonescu, the forming of the individual being (he advises the teacher to follow the gardener`s example, who takes care, schola materna or education done in the family), in which the first steps, the speech are learnt, the hygiene rules are internalized, an introduction into moral education is done, practicing with senses and the developing of intelligence appear, education will start early, before our mind gets corrupted, it will start from general to particular, from easy to difficult, so as nobody receives loads of information, everything will be taught intuitively. Starting with the example of gardening, Comenius considers that education should start in "the spring of life", as soon as possible in the life of the child, "the school from the mother's knees", then "the popular school", the child having to understand first the things and after that remembering them.

Through his study, "Some thoughts concerning Education" (1693), which helped the development of pedagogy between 18th and 19th century, John Locke (1632-1704) predicted the education into the family. He saw "The possible knowledge only through experience" ("Essay on human understanding", 1690). "All the ideas come through feelings or sensations", this statement revealing the sensory area and mental processes, realities which should be taken into consideration by educators.

The first one who recognize the importance of psychology in education is Jean-Jacques Rousseau, representative for the philosophical pedagogy, who, as a follower of the negative education, says that the role of the educator is to guard and protect the child from the extern influences which came from the society. Into his book, "Emile, or on education" (1762), with a preface and 5 chapters, prefigures education in correlation with the steps in child's development: "until the age of 2, the accent is on the care and the physical education, between the age of 2 and the age of 12, the accent is put on the senses education through the direct contact whit the environment, between the age of 12 and the age of 15, intellectual education counts the most, and since the age of 15 until the increase age, the accent is put on the moral education". Intuitive overlapping of psychology with pedagogy is resumed so: "Le petit d'homme n'est pas simplement un petit homme". The importance of the intervention of family in child's education is resumed so: "the child becomes for his parents, after the education he/she receives, reward or punishment".

The empirical studies about the child`s psychological development appear under the form of biographical recordings of the children`s behaviour at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century. "A biographical sketch of an infant" represents one of the first famous biographies which was published in 1877 by Charles Darwin. This work of his is based on the direct observations on the development and the behaviour of his own son, his example being followed by many other researchers (J. Piaget and S. Freud). It starts, in that way, a period of narrative approach in the psychology's methodology referring to the child. It took 37 years to Charles Darwin to observe his own child and after these years to be able to offer relevant information, although they were naive and subjective, about the child's development and the complexity of the infant behaviour.

In the study of child's development, a normative approach is being promoted by Granville Stanley Hall (1844-1924), who concentrated his studies on measuring capacities and psychological features of the child, creating instruments for measuring (the survey as an instrument of psychological investigation).

Are due to Wiliam Thiery Preyer (1841-1897) studies of human development, premises of psychological development. He wrote "The soul of the child" (Die Seele des kindes, 1882), where he makes observations about the mental development of the infantil human.

The Austrian doctor Adolf Kussmaul (1822-1902) is the one who, as a pioneer of pediatrics, described for the first time the dyslexia – "word blindness". We assist to a unify of different sciences which have as main subject the child and his manifestations.

Starting with the 20th century, the child and his childhood are in the attention of psychologists and pedagogues: two French researchers, Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon, and, after a while Lewis Terman, researcher at Stanford

University in the United States of America, joined them and together boost the standardized measurement of children mental capacities through the first standardized test of IQ measurement.

Édouard Claparède (1873-1940), swiss educator, occupied his career with infant psychology ("Experimental Pedagogy and the psychology of the child", 1905). Are due to him the research which lately became The Science of Education (the child's psychology, educational psychology, forming concepts, solving problems, thinking for the human organism). He published in 1927 a guidance paper "Comment diagnostiquer les aptitudes chez les écoliers", proving the necessity of discovering school skills for children for school and professional orientation. The theory of functional education, sustained by Édouard Claparède, was based on the functional psychology's principles, which, in his opinion, avoided to ask some philosophical questions ("What is the memory?") and looked to find a purpose for the psychic processes and how they can be developed. Édouard Claparède believed that functional education is the one which take as a base the needs of the child, his interest in achieving goals, this one being a natural incentive of the activity he wants to awake into the child. This perspective allows us to understand processes functionality which sustain the behaviour which we want to determine as educators. From a practical way of view, it shows us the value of a process in what regards achieving the planned goal.

Jean-Ovide Decroly (1871-192) was a Belgian psychologist who fought for a major change in education, based on a global approach of learning to read and write. He founded an Institution for Special Education for children, where he made research about child's psychology, introducing the concept of "normal children".

Decroly's pedagogy is based on the following fundaments:

- Globalization – the child learns on a global level,
- The child's superior interest – guide for education,
- The natural environment's importance which puts the child into a situation of discovery,
- The workshop-school or laboratory – classroom where the child lives and acts,
- Education should focus on child's interests. This pedagogy of interest is based on idea of fundamental necessity,
- Every human being has some basic needs which should be studied in school. Thus, educational institutions should be organized into 4 areas: food, fight for empires, defense from danger, social work and recreation,
- The concept of activity is fundamental, the proposed activities should request all the child's functions (sensitive, motor, intellectual and emotional).

In the same spirit of new education (the Congress took place in Callais, 1921), with Maria Montessori (1870-1952), in Italy, the first nurseries kindergartens make appearance (1907, "casa dei bambini" for normal children) where were applied her educational ideas, concretized into a real educational method - the Montessori method (The discovery of the child). Maria Montessori focused her attention and educational methods on intellectual retarded children, children who were born with mental deficiencies also known as idiots.

Basic principles:

- Self-education and application of the direct learned things, unmediated,
- Creating educational groups which cover 3 years old differences between the children, for example: 3 to 5 years old, 6 to 9 years old, 7 to 10 years old etc.,
- Encouraging the children to take decisions which they have to respect,
- "Montessori Method" encourage natural development of the very little children through learning by touching and free movement,
- Following the controlled liberty principle, Montessori schools inspire children to work in their normal rhythm, alone or in teams. The educators encourage the self-motivated, independent, active, open to peer-education children's development. The younger children enjoy the daily stimulation, as old models say, while the elder children learn to respect themselves in a warm atmosphere of acceptance and joy.

Some works as "The Child" (published in Romanian in 1933), "From childhood to youth" (1948), in which is presented in four different periods the psychological evolution from 0 to 18 years old, are important for the contributions in specialty literature of early education.

Arnold Lucius Gesell (1880-1961) was an American psychologist in pediatric who had interest intro physical and mental development of the really young children and normal children in order to observe and measure their behaviour using controlled ways. He used the concept of "domains" (motor abilities, adaptive behaviour, language development, personal and social abilities). These will be the experiential field's base of the preschool curriculum ("Infancy and human growth", 1928).

He developed technics for observing children in natural playing situation, without disturbing them, offering this way behaviour opportunities free from the interference effects of researchers. Gessel admitted the gene and food importance in child's development ("nature and nurture"). In his opinion, children pass through different stages intro a fixed sequence, in a certain period of time, depending on their human innate abilities.

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) studied the way of knowledge's development in the human organism. He carefully followed his 3 children, made a naturalistic research schedule, made experimental studies on intelligence development.

The base of his theory is the concept of knowable structure (physical or mental model of actions which highlights specific acts of intelligence and

correspond to some studies of child's development). According to Piaget's theory, there are 4 stages of development: sensory-motor, pre-operations, concrete operations and formal operations:

- in sensory-motor stage (0–2 years old) intelligence take the form of motor actions
- in pre-operations period (3–7 years old), the intelligence is intuitive
- during concrete operations stage (8–11 years old), the knowable structure is logical, but it depends on concrete references
- on the final stage of formal operations (12–15 years old), thinking will involve abstract notions.

The main conclusions which come off from the stagiality's cognitive development theory proposed by him are:

- children have an active role in learning, exploring the world and experiencing. They play the role of "little scientists" starting with their first moths of life. Children do not do this thing in an aleatory mode, they build their knowledge by selecting from their experiences every element that matches with their psychological organization,
- children's way of thinking is, in terms of quality, different from the adult's one and the nature of these differences is changing from a period to another one; intellectual development is not only about offering a lot of information, always adding on their basic knowledge.

Unlike Jean Piaget, the Russian psychologist Lev Vîgotsky (1896-1934) considered that the particular environment where children are growing and their interactions with people more experienced are parts integrated from their cognitive development. This is, in essence, a social process which is formed from 3 parts: cultural, interpersonal and individual. Vîgotsky argued that the child's optimum level is achieved when he is working like a "help" with a person more experienced and the gap between what they know and what they can learn in guidance conditions has an important signification, being named "area of proximal development"- "the distance between the level of current development, as it is determined through independent solving and the level of potential development as it is determined through problem solving with the adult's guidance or in team with teammates more capable". Child's potential development thinking allows him to solve problems as a task only with other's help, in team. Between the two "developments" learning activities are conturing – area of proximal development.

The frame concept (introduced by David Wood and his colleagues) describes the guidance type and help offered by adults to children in order to solve problems. In that way, the type and quantity of help are adjusted to the child's performance level. The custodian's role is to fill the interval between the existent knowledge and the new task's abilities and requirement ("The preschooler will manage to learn only if the educator becomes his program").

A mental development's major characteristic is its stadiality. The age periods when the psycho-behavioral scene is relatively similar for all of the children were named development's stages, coming one after another.

In specialty literature, from the explanatory perspective, there are 3 child's mental development's criteria:

- the basic activity type: games, learning, the work which express the energetic and mental force's directing and structuring for gaining knowledge, the skill's and abilities functionality which have the trend of being part of the characteristics;
- the type of relationships that can be both objective and social; it express the progressive structure under the report of adaptation and social integration;
- the types of contradictions between the extern and subjective tasks (wishes, ideals, aspirations) as the contradictions between every category and the society's possibilities of fulfill them.

Another category of contradictions is relating to the opposition between the old and new psychic structures, between the personality's different parts and characteristics and between the conscious and unconscious. Speaking about knowing and studying the child, there are two basic axes: the child's intellectual development and the psycho-affective development.

Thus, concerning about child, childhood, preschool education, early education are old and with no doubt about the pedagogic and didactic or psychological approaches from the field of human knowledge.

Chronological, the approach of child's psychological development in different stages of development, the start of the early educational pedagogy, starts in the antenatal period, following developing's dynamic:

- the birth
- the first year of life
- the first childhood: from 1 to 3 years old
- the second childhood: from 3 to 6–7 years old
- the third childhood: from 6 to 10–12 years old.

Overview of mental development stages

THE STAGE	CRITERIA
0 – 1 year old: the stage of the baby	▪ The individual's basic activity: the organic needs satisfaction, ▪ The type of relationship: it is based on the unconditioned reflexes (defensive instinct, food instinct), which allow the child to adapt to the environment, ▪ The type of contradictions: total addiction for an adult.

1 – 3 years old: ante-preschool stage	▪ The basic activity: the manipulating of objects, but there is no conscious purpose, ▪ The type of relationship: it starts through the forming of the conditioned reflexes, ▪ The type of contradictions: the stage of addiction for an adult is decreasing; the capacity of speaking and the the capacity of independent moving are developing.
3 – 6/7 years old: the preschool stage	▪ The basic activity: the game; it is played with unanimous accepted rules, the child playing different characters and having to choose a suitable behaviour, ▪ The type of relationships: it makes social relationships, he becomes a person with a social statute; he has obligations: to wake up on an appointed time, to dress himself and to go to kindergarten, ▪ The type of contradictions: the stage of addiction is decreasing due to the formed self-conscious and the rised thinking's critical character.
6/7 – 10/11 years old: the little schooler's stage	▪ The basic activity: the imposed learning, conducted by another person, ▪ The type of relationships: the social relationships are extending so are the obligations and the rights, ▪ The type of contradictions: the stage of addictions is influenced by the forming of a self-concept about the surrounding reality.

The European countries and others promote the concept of Early Childhood Education Care (ECEC). All of the European countries have a formal system of early childhood education care for the preschool children, organized by specialized centers. The organization of these services is different in the European countries.

The major benefits gained through Early Childhood Education Care (ECEC) started to be much more recognized at the social level, starting with the economical advantages for all the society and finishing with the improving of the school performance (The differences at European level into education and caring of preschool children, 2014). ECEC can help decreasing the future public costs for social assistance, health and even justice if it provides quality educational programs. Making a reliable base for the successful continuous learning process, quality ECEC provides individual benefits for all of the children, especially for the ones who come from social disadvantaged environment. ECEC presents a base for educational systems more equitable and performant.

In Romania, after the bias that for the first period of the child's life are enough the food and warm, in 2001 took place the administrative passing from the orders of the sanitary sector to the local public administration. This change

did not adjusted the organization and operation of the nurseries as services of care and education for little children.

The new National Education Law (1/2011) provides that, early education is the first stage of preparing for the formal education and it is addressed to the children from their birth until the age of six or seven years old, offering specific conditions for developing, depending on their individual evolution and their ages. According to the global Monitoring Report of education for all (2007), early education supports survival, growth, development and learning children from their birth until their entrance in the elementary school, including nutrition, health, hygiene, cognitive, social, physical and emotional development of children. Young ages are the base of children's personality and for their educational success it is required to be trained all of the social actors with influence on the children: family – institutions – community.

This new perspective on the period of early education, considering the evolution of the family and the woman's role into society and the new discoveries and theories on child's development, boosted another government speech regarding integrated services and leaded to an orientation of specialists concern to the following idea: the opportunity of taking care of the little child out of family, into specialized services, and the passing from the private family's care to the public services one named services of taking care and education out of family.

The new perspective regarding the family and the little child, like the important moments of the 1990 year in this area, which marked the politics of early development of the child, helped on shaping the basic principles of the United Nations Conventions on Children Right which highlights that the child's wellbeing and development are the result of a convergent approach, including health, education and child's protection.

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EARLY EDUCATION, CONCEPTUAL DIRECTIONS

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Abstract

For a long time, the concept of early education meant the education delivered before the children`s schooling, also known as preschool education, which takes place between 3 years and 6/7 years old, being considered a systemized activity, developed within specialised institutions such as kindergartens. We witness an enlargement of the concept of early education: going under three years old. Primarily, the concept has been connected with other two priorities: protection and health (health and nutrition). Since Jomtien, early education has been called the child`s early development.

Key-words: early education, complementary domains, processing approach

Defining the concept of early education

The new European strategic framework Education & Training 2020 (launched in 2009) proposes to all member states to archive the creation of values by knowledge, to develop the citizens' skills by creating societies which support inclusion and to create a competitive, connected and ecological economy.

This European framework views continuous learning and continuous education as fundamental processes for Lifelong Education. "Permanent education represents the totality of all learning activities realized by each person during a lifetime, in formal, non-formal and informal contexts, in order to train and develop skills from a multiple perspective: personal, civic, social or occupational. Lifetime learning includes early education, secondary education, tertiary education, continuous occupational education and training of adults" (National Education Low, 1/2011, art. 328).

Traditionally, the pedagogical phase of a 0-6/7 years old was considered pre-school education. The current educational policy does not include (or it does not do it declaratively) a specific section concerning the Early education of the 0-3 years old child. In a practical way, the focus of the current educational policy when it comes to early education is put on the pre-school education.

For a long time, the concept of Early education referred to the education received before the beginning of schooling, known as pre-school education, which takes place between the ages of 3 and 6/7 and is considered a systematized education, taking place in kindergartens.

The new perspective regarding the early childhood defined during the

Jomtien conference (Thailand, 1990, Education for all, signing by the present education ministers of the Declaration regarding the Education for all – Déclaration mondiale sur l'éducation pour tous et cadre d'action pour répondre aux besoins éducatifs de base) is strongly related with concept of lifelong learning and with a change in the way the moment in which education begins is seen: Education begins at birth.

We assist at the enlargement of the concept of early education: going beyond the 3 years old threshold. Horizontally, the concept was aligned with 2 other social priorities: protection and health (health and nutrition). Jomtien names early education the early development of the child.

Focusing on the early education and pre-school years is important, because this is the phase at which children develop faster, and if the development process is neglected at this stage, it will be much more difficult and expensive to compensate for these losses later. It is well-known that the choices made now and the actions taken by parents and the society in early childhood have a broader and longer influence on the progress of the individual and the nations, in a broader picture.

By giving the children proper attention, ensuring its education and growth, we create the climate for developing a well-balanced and harmonious personality.

Specialists consider that early education takes place from birth until turning 8 years old, period in which the fastest brain development takes place. The first 2 years of life are the most important, as these are the years in which the most important intellectual, emotional, psychological and social changes take place.

Therefore, early education signifies the pedagogical demarche the follows the stage of the life of the child that spans between birth and 6/7 years old, the moment when schooling, and when the child steps in another development phase.

Synoptic of the evolution of development cycles after the child`s early development cycle.

Cycles	Objectives	Description
Fundamental acquisitions cycle (kindergarten-2nd grade)	▪ Initial alphabetization	▪ Assimilation of the basic principles of the basic conversational languages; ▪ Stimulation of the creativity of the child, of the intuition and of the imagination; ▪ Building the motivation for learning, understood as a social activity.

Development cycle (3rd grade-6th grade)	▪ Building the basic capacities required for continuing studies	▪ Development of structured thinking and of the competence of applying problem solving; ▪ Familiarizing with multidisciplinary approach of the knowledge fields; ▪ Building a system of values; ▪ Developing a responsible attitude.

Trying to define early education places the concept in an integrate and procedural approach, in which, interdependent and convergent are priority areas for the century in which we are living: social, cultural, economic.

Longitudinally, defining early education is at the intersection (interpenetration) of three complementary areas: health, education and child`s protection. Transversely, early education is convergent with another concept/tendency: the opportunity of small child care outside the family, in specialized services and, therefore, switching from private family care to the private services one called care services and education outside the family ("out of family") (Curriculum for education of children aged birth to 6/7).

Tendencies of increasing participation in education:

Children start formal education at an increasing earlier age.

In the period 2000-2009, the average EU-27 children's participation rates at 3 years, 4 years and 5 years in preschool or primary education increased by 15.3% and 7% and 6.3%, reaching around 77%, 90% and 94% in 2009. Participation of 3 years old children to preschool was quite widespread in Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France and Iceland in 2009, exceeding 95% (Key data on education in Europe).

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997)

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) was designed to facilitate the compilation and comparison of statistics on education both on the inside and on the outside of national borders. It combines two transversal variables (education levels and domains) with the type of education (general/ vocational/ pre-vocational) or intended destination of students (higher education or direct input on the labor market).

The current version, ISCED 97 distinguishes seven levels of education:

- ISCED 0: Pre-primary education is defined as the initial stage of organized instruction. It takes place in an educational environment or center and is designed for children that are at least 3 years old.

- ISCED 1: Primary education is the level that begins between 5 and 7 years, is compulsory in all countries and it usually lasts between 4 to 6 years old.
- ISCED 2: Lower secondary education. Continues the basic programs of primary, although teaching is typically focused on a greater extent on the discipline of study. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the end of compulsory education.

Linked definitions of the "Early Education" concept:

- Education and early care of young children (Early Childhood Education and Care – ECEC): it refers to subsidized and accredited structures and public services that address children below mandatory school age. The terms "education" and "care/assistance" are used together in order to underline the fact that children' services are able to combine care with studying and development opportunities.
- Education and care of preschoolers (EICP): Services offered to children since birth to the beginning of primary school, which according to the national regulation, for example, have to comply with a set of rules and minimal standards and/or submitted to an accreditation process.
- Children with additional educational needs: children who are exposed to the risk of obtaining poor results over their educational development and who demand supplementary support for them to achieve their maximum potential. More often than not, these children originate from disadvantaged environments such as immigrant groups, ethnical minorities or with a reduced social and economic status.
- Additional needs are perceived as educational needs of children which derive, first of all, from social, economic, cultural and/ or linguistic factors.
- Children at risk: There is no official national definition for children found in risky situations, although the concept is often used in certain preventing measures with the purpose to support children in difficult situations or belonging to more vulnerable groups. The concepts cover a wide range of circumstances, and the risk itself is interpreted in terms of "categories" rather than "individuals" with criteria linked to parental circumstances.

Examples of care and pre-primary education:

There are three important models for providing early education services:

- The first and most important model, one that represents the great majority of pre-primary educational structures, adopts the institutionalized model, aimed at the child and a professional strategy of delivering services. This type of structure includes institutionalized child care in a traditional specialized center in which there are being developed pre-primary studying programs and general primary education (these are usually public pre-primary schools, kindergartens or training classes for primary schools);

- The second model consists of different care services and educational programs for children focused on the child himself while some can even take place at home. In this case, service delivery agents, non-professionals workers or with relative training for them to practice in this domain – for example, parents and other semi-professional categories of workers;
- The third model consists in a wide range of support programs focused on either parents or families. Usually, systems and family assistance programs offer a diversity of services and activities adapted to multiple family needs (Primary school and child protection in Europe).

The educational approach of curricular content:

Early education has the following functions: social, educational and children' care. Pestalozzi, Frobel, Dewey and Montessori have developed their own approach in the matters that concern the practices of education and care of children in educational structures like the "asylum" type and in primary schools of their era.

Pestalozzi, Frobel and Dewey have seen pre-primary schools that addressed early education as an extension of and ideal family environment and they have underlined the importance of emotional safety and an affectionate attitude which the teacher ought to have in his relationship with students. This meant that "the teacher should not resort to a strict discipline inside the classroom, but that he should guide the students in activities that allow them to discover the world, instead of focusing only on teaching their subject. Nowadays, this approach might be called developing".

Montessori has extended this approach to a much more individualized curriculum, having considered the differences in the development rhythm and intrinsic motivation that each child has in the period of accumulating information through studying. Currently, this picture is represented through the notion of education "centered on the child", with the importance of child initiative being underlined, along with the development of his choosing capacity and self-determination.

Another characteristic of these primary approaches regarding education and early care was the insertion of real activities (Frobel) and project work (Dewey), which was the equivalent of stimulating the participation of children in activities similar to those of the adults from the community to which they belonged. At present, the approach through the means of implementing cultural practices from the adults' world in the curriculum that addresses young children could be qualified as "authentic".

The role of the teacher is not limited to creating conditions for optimal, self-propelled development. The teacher should likewise initiate the children deliberately in different cultural domains, like the ones taught at school (or academicals), language courses, Literature, Arithmetic, Mathematics and Science and he should interact with children in order to build a "scaffolding" of the further development of the children in these domains.

Access to education and early care:

There is an established form of subsidized and accredited education and early care services for preschool children. The difference consists in the way of organizing qualified authorities and the age at which children have access at these services.

We can distinguish two main models of ECEC institutions in Europe:

- When it comes to the first model, the schooling of young children is accomplished in unitary structures and it is organized in one stage for all preschoolers. Each institution has one managerial team that deals with children of all ages, and the staff responsible for the education of children generally has the same qualification and the same salary regardless of the age of the children they're looking after.
- With the second model, the ECEC services are structured according to the child's age (addressing, as usual, children from age 0 to 3 years and 3 to 6 years). Each type of institution/educational center can be found in the subordination of different ministries. This mode is the most prevalent one in Europe. In some countries both models coexist.

Education and professional training of the staff represents a fundamental aspect for the quality of ECEC services:

In most countries, the offer for children below the age of 2 and the preschool offer (above 2-3 years old) is under the jurisdiction of different public authorities.

The permanent staff that takes care of smaller children (below the age of 2) is, generally, trained at

- ISCED level 3 or 4: In Romania, where in the past few years there has been adopted a more educational approach, the personnel from nurseries is still trained from a paramedical point of view and this is a priority when it comes to professional training.

Furthermore, in all countries, except Belgium, Estonia and Spain (age 0-3) and Romania, the staff from ECEC structures includes qualified assistants or less qualified ones that conduct activities regarding children care. The educational work is assigned to a qualified staff, while changing diapers, nurturing and other tasks like that are left in the auxiliary staff's care.

Therefore, it is obvious that there are many members of the staff with alternative roles, involved in the process of taking care of children, which could ultimately lead to a lack of continuity in the education of children and building relationships.

Key-data regarding the education and care of preschoolers in Romania (years 2012/2013, according to the Eurydice and Eurostat rapport, 2014 edition):

- organization

Up until the age of 3 years old, children benefit of care in institutional structures called nurseries. From the age of 3 (sometimes even 2) until 6 years, children can frequent kindergartens. The Ministry of Education is responsible for furnishing early childhood education and children above the age of 3 are the ones who benefit from it in kindergartens.

In the case of children below the age of 3, this responsibility is split between the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Work, Family, Social Protection and the Elderly. Primary school starts at the age of 6. Before the approval of the National Law of Education (no 1/2011), parents were able to choose where to enlist their children. Consequently, at the age of 6, a child could either go to kindergarten or to school, as a first grader.

- taxes

In public institutions of education and care of preschoolers there are no perceived taxes; however, parents do pay for the child's meal. Children who come from families with low income have the possibility of free meals.

Legal stipulations concerning early education of a child with the age between 0 to 3 years:

In this area there are a number of laws and regulations for the protection of child rights below 3 years old. However, they all refer to the nursing of the child, health, nutrition and social protection. Many government decisions are especially linked to child protection and child rights, but there is no specific law for early education in general.

A characteristic of the current early educational system in Romania is the following: due to the lack of legislation regarding the education of children from 0 to 3 years, a number of nurseries and kindergartens have developed without any consistent structure or without clear educational standards. **There is a diversity of institutions for early education, some of which are listed below**:

- Daily care centers for children below the age of 6 found in situations of risk, coordinated by Direction of Social Assistance and Child Protection;
- Daily care centers or private kindergartens for children below the age of 6, approved by the Ministry of Education, which offer good examples of practice in the domain;
- Kindergartens with nurseries for children from the same group age as the ones from daily care centers;
- Kindergartens for children from age 3 to 6/7 years old. These are funded by local councils and they are coordinated by the Ministry of Education;
- Nurseries for children from 4 months to 3 years old who can also accommodate children over 3 years in order to maintain the hired staff. These are funded and coordinated by local councils, without a direct and professional supervision and without any kind of educational standards.

Services for children with the age between 0 and 3 years old are funded through

nursery systems that offer some types of medical care without any component of early education. In the past, nurseries were the responsibility of the Ministry of Health. However, in 2002, the Ministry of Health absolved itself of this responsibility and the nurseries were left without any kind of formal identity or governmental support. At present, nurseries are funded by local authorities while kindergartens are funded by the Ministry of Education (The strategy regarding early education).

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EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES OF THE TWO AGES UNDER THE FUNDAMENTAL PROCUREMENT CYCLE. DEVELOPMENT PROGRESS IN THE TWO AGES

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Abstract

Preschool period is characterized by a rapid development at all levels: physical, cognitive and socio-emotional. These levels are closely interconnected and can only artificially be separated, in order to be investigated and easier understood.

The didactic cycles are periods of the schooling including several years of studying, belonging to different schooling levels and having certain aims in common. The primary acquisitions` period has its main goals adapted to the preschool system`s standards and includes initial teaching reading and writing.

Key-words: preschool education, educational goals, experiential domains, didactic areas, synthesis.

Key-concepts: the fundamental acquisitions cycle: curriculum cycle, psychosocial development cycles, formal structure of the education system, curriculum areas

The educational ideal of the Romanian society, according to the 2nd article of the Law of National Education (2011), consists in fully and harmonious development of human individuality, in the formation of autonomous personality and in taking a value system necessary for personal fulfillment and development, for development of entrepreneurship, for active citizenship in society, for social inclusion and employment on the labor market", while the educational finalities by educational stages constitutes a materialization of finalities of the educational system for its various levels, describe the specifics of each level of education in terms of educational policy and represents a reference system for both curriculum development and orientation of teaching in the classroom.

At the level of pre-primary and primary education, the educational finalities seek to ensure the elementary education for all children, the formation of the child's personality, respecting the level and the peace of its development, providing the child with knowledge, skills and attitudes to stimulate the creative and effective reporting to the social and natural environment allowing continuity of education.

Curricular cycles are periods of schooling which bring together several years of study and which have, within each discipline, general objectives/ common specific

skills. These periods of schooling overlap the formal structure of the education system in order to focus learning on the major objective of each educational stage and to adjust the educational process trough curricular interventions.

The introduction of curricular cycles has generated curricular changes through:

- changes in the educational curriculum framework plans, regarding the grouping of subjects,
- the time of placing in educational curriculum framework plans of certain subjects,
- the share of disciplines in the economy of the educational framework plans
- conceptual changes on the programs and textbooks,
- teaching strategy changes (conditioned by the rethinking of the initial and continuing training of teachers).

The objectives of cycles give various stages of schooling a series of dominants which are reflected in the structure of the curricula. Thus, the structuring of the education system in curricular cycles contributes to:

- creating continuity in the transition from one level of education to another (pre-school - primary, primary - middle school, middle school - high school),
- continuity at a methodical level through the transfer of methods from one cycle to another, establishing explicit connections of curricula through the set of general objectives,
- building a structure of the education system better correlated with the psychological age of students.

The cycles of psychosocial development are:

Cycles	Age level	Class
Early acquisitions	0 - 3	-
The first structured acquisitions	3 - 6	Kindergarten
Fundamental acquisition	6 - 8	PC- II
Development and diversification	8 - 11	III – VI
Thorough study, observation and orientation	11 - 15	VII – IX
Thorough study and specialization	15 - 18	X – XII

The formal structure of the education system shows the relationship between level of education and age, allocating the type of education needed and the correlation with the European vision on lifelong learning:

Educational stage	Age	ISCED level
Early education • Early childhood educational development (0-3) • Pre-primary education (3-6)	0 - 6	ISCED 0
Primary education • Preparatory class and classes I-IV	6 - 11	ISCED 1
Lower secondary education • Classes V-IX	11 - 15	ISCED 2
A. Upper secondary education • Classes X-XII/XIII **B. Vocational education**	15 - 18	ISCED 3
Non-academic tertiary education Post high school education	18+	ISCED 4

Depending on the curricular cycle, the curricular areas are recomposing under the seven domains of approach. They are grouping different disciplines depending on their educational dominants:

- Language and Communication
- Mathematics and Natural Sciences
- Man and Society
- Arts
- Physical Education and Sports
- Technologies
- Counselling and Guidance

At the level of primary cycle, the curricular areas are:

1. Language and Communication
2. Man and society
3. Mathematics and Natural Sciences
4. Technologies
5. Arts
6. Health and motility
7. Counselling and guidance

Fundamental acquisitions cycle. Preschool and school age

Fundamental acquisitions cycle concerns:

- assimilation of the basic elements of the main conventional languages (reading, writing, arithmetic calculus),

- the stimulation of the child for the perception, knowledge and control of the near environment,
- the stimulation of the the child's creative potential, intuition and imagination,
- the training of motivation for learning, understood as a social activity.

Preschool period is characterized by a rapid development at all levels: physical, cognitive and socio-emotional. These levels are closely interconnected and can only artificially be separated, in order to be investigated and easier understood. For example, the ability to inhibit a response (cognitive function) depends greatly on the maturation of frontal brain areas (physical appearance) and has important consequences at the level of social interactions, for instance waiting in the line (socio-emotional aspect).

Child's education begins at birth. Early education in Romania, as worldwide includes child's education within the age range and birth until their entry to school. Kindergarten, as a formal education service provides the environment that guarantees safety and taking into account the psychological characteristics of child's development involves both the family and the community in the process of learning.

Louis D' Hainaut sees as "focal point of the curriculum must be the student, not the subject and that when talking of the curriculum content we must understand that it is not about enunciating subjects to learn, but aims expressed in terms of skills, ways to act or general knowing of the student".

The framework objectives of the curriculum for preschool education are formulated in general terms and express skills to be developed during the preschool period on the five experiential areas. The reference objectives as well as the examples of behavior, as explicit expressions of learning outcomes (concepts, knowledge, skills and attitudes, but also of skills of the subject) are formulated for each theme and each experiential field.

In their formulation it was taken into account:

- the possibilities, interests and needs of the preschool child, as well as the respect of its own rhythm,
- correlation of each new experience of learning with the precedents,
- encouraging initiative and participation of the preschool child in goal setting, the selection of contents and evaluation methods,
- encouraging independent learning by providing opportunities to build knowledge (both in the educational institution and outside of it), as well as work in small groups on activity centers (areas of stimulation) and, if possible, in groups with a heterogeneous composition,
- stimulation of self-reflection, self-evaluation, self-regulation learning behavior.

The experiential fields which are operated in the curriculum for pre-school education are:

- Man and society field - includes the man, his way of life, relationships

with other people, relations with the social environment, as well as the ways in which human actions affects events. In the social sciences field it is desired that preschoolers understand human beings involved in building their future. It is also important for preschoolers to understand that present situations are rooted in past situations, to observe similarities and differences between people or events.

- Language and communication field - covers mastering oral and written expression as well as the ability to understand verbal and written communication. It is intended that they speak confidently, clearly and fluently, using appropriate means of expression for different categories of audience.
- Science field - includes the approach of the mathematical domain through practical experience and also understanding of nature, as being modifiable by the human beings with which it is in interaction.
- Psycho-motric field covers the coordination and control of body movements, overall mobility and stamina, motor skills and finesse manipulation, as the elements of knowledge, especially about human anatomy and physiology.
- Aesthetic and creative field covers the abilities to respond emotionally and intellectually perceptive experiences

The curriculum, alongside the presented experiential fields, allows integrated interdisciplinary scrolling through the proposed content and ensures freedom to the teacher in planning the daily activities with the preschoolers. The study level is organized in Early Education, depending on the age of the child: 3-5 years/ 5-7 years.

I.Language and communication field

Study level 3-5 years:

- acquisition of linguistic fundamentals (fruits, flowers, moods, phenomena),
- understanding and transmission of simple messages,
- knows to present himself,
- narrates stories from his personal life,
- learns new words and uses them in games.

Study level 5-7 years:

- memorizing of two to three strophes,
- characterization of a character,
- continuation of a story with a given beginning,
- recognition, naming and graphic labeling of sounds,
- composes sentences of two, three or more words,
- finds several words that begin or end with the same letter,
- composes short words.

II. Science field

Study level 3-5 years:

- counting acquisition within the limit of 1-5,
- reporting number quantity,
- classification of objects by different criteria: color, shape, size,
- discovering components of the surrounding world by engaging of sense organs,

- knows the types of daily activities carried out in the community in which he lives (health, education, transport, agriculture, crafts, etc.),
- respect the rules of individual and collective hygiene,
- interprets data and symbols from which he extracts information (nature's calendar, responsibilities table, group's diary).

Study level 5-7 years:

- counting acquisitions within the limit of 1-10,
- composing groups of 1, 2, ... 10 items,
- counts right in ascending and descending order,
- making correspondence from 1 to 1 to show that a group has more or fewer objects than another,
- recognizes and indicates digits,
- understands the relationship digit-number,
- performs addition and subtraction operations by 1-2 units within the limits of 1-10 by manipulating objects,
- knowledge of some elements of the surrounding world (objects, air, water, soil, vegetation, fauna, natural phenomena etc.),
- talks about the significance of national events (traditional, religious, cultural, historical).

III. Man and society field

Study level 3-5 years:

- know and respect the rules required for integration in social life as well as personal security rules,
- adapt their own behavior to the requirements of the group in which they are living (family, kindergarten, play group),
- describe and identify specific local elements of our country and area where they live (relief items, geographical location, socio-cultural, historical, religious and ethnic objectives),
- executes proposed themes both individually and in groups.

Study level 5-7 years:

- compliance with the rules of social coexistence,
- present small stories, stories related to their own family, colleagues, friends, neighbors,
- show tolerance towards other forms of life with which they could come into contact, or that have existed and are presented to them
- knowledge of data related to the country of origin, continent, planet, address details,
- store events and recognize them after certain features,
- makes simple practical operations: cuts with scissors, folds the paper, ties, coils, twines, sits the table etc.,
- express their views to their work and to the work of the others motivating their opinions.

IV. Aesthetic and creative field

Study level 3-5 years:

- discovers the world around using hearing,
- differentiates the sound of singing from the spoken one and sounds produced by different sound objects,
- correct use of work tools (pencil, brush, permanent marker) to freely express graphic gesture,
- use of plastic elements (point, line, spot color),
- use of new techniques (fusion, overlay, stamp technique, etc.),
- recognize their work and of the colleagues,
- recognize landscapes, images from movies, stories, heroes of stories etc.

Study level 5-7 years:

- differentiates and reproduces high and low sounds in the range G-C,
- sing children's songs alone, together or accompanied by teachers,
- spontaneously improvise short syncretic motives (onomatopoeic text and melody, onomatopoeic text and movement etc.),
- reproduction of specific plastic design topics,
- performs collective or individual works by combining different working techniques: collages, graphic design and painting, modeling and painting etc.

V. Psycho-motor field

Study level 3-5 years:

- knowledge and use of specific equipment to physical education activities,
- learning basic movements: walking, running, jumping,
- utility and applicable skills: crawling on hands and knees, walking in balance between two lines drawn on the ground,
- children motion games or sports games.

Study level 5-7 years:

- give motor response to a given command,
- correct execution of movements of different parts of the body (arms, legs, back, head, neck etc.),
- coordinate their movements with the rhythm required by the teacher,
- relate to a given reference,
- execution of themed dances,
- acquire of the basic rules of sports.

School age

At the primary education level, the goals formulated in terms of competences are designed according to the two specific stages:

- fundamental acquisitions stage-classes: PS, I, II where takes place the accommodation to the requirements of the school system and the initial alphabetization;
- development-stage classes III - IV where takes place the forming of the basic capacities for further study.

Fundamental acquisitions stage

Preparatory class covers "physical, socio-emotional, cognitive, language and communication development and learning capacities and attitudes, while ensuring the starting point for the development of the eight key competences. It will have a dual role: on the one hand consolidation of the acquired knowledge and, on the other hand, socializing and adaptability to change. In addition, preparatory class will give all children a better start in school life". Preparatory class has the task of developing, through practice, children's mental processes of knowledge up to school maturity. It must create favorable conditions to achieve continuity of the pre-primary education with the primary education.

The purpose of this class is to enable children to acquire the necessary preparation for the start of school and under the formative aspect, to reach the optimal development of mental processes of knowledge. The First Class is important because it represents the beginning. The child learns to write, read and count, the most important skills for all school years.

Learning to read and write, a major objective of the curriculum of primary schools, children are free from the constraints of face to face communication and gain access to ideas and imagination. Once they can transform marks on a page to sound patterns with meaning, children can develop more complex strategies to understand what they read and use written words to express ideas, thoughts and feelings.

Class II ends the curricular cycle of fundamental acquisitions consisting of preparatory class, class I and class II. By the end of it, it is intended to achieve a basic level of performance in the training of key skills in line with levels of cognitive and affective development of the students. Compared with the preparatory class and class I, the study of the discipline in class II is ensuring progressive development of skills, as well as other acquisitions acquired by students in the moral-emotional and action plan.

Progress in development at the two ages

At the basis of this comparative presentation, designed to highlight the progress in the development at the two ages of the fundamental acquisitions cycle are two assumptions:

- Development is a set of transformations involving the notions of "continuity", "finality"

"evolution" and means complex bio-psycho-social changes of the individual ranked time.

- As a comparative presentation method was used explanation, supported by the description, knowing that methodologically the explanation is inseparable from the development study (Neveanu, 1978).

1. What cognitive processes are developing?	
Pre-school	***School***
• The symbolic function helps children to make judgments. They can make the connection between cause and effect; • Awareness of personal thought processes;	• Concrete operations appear around the age of 6/7 in which they can use mental operations such as reasoning; however, their thinking is still limited to real situations "here" and "now"; • Better understanding of spatial concepts, causality, classification; • Occurs the transition to a logical, flexible thinking;
2. What progress occurs at the memory level?	
Pre-school	***School***
• The sensorial memory shows few changes, but the memory working capacity enhances greatly; • Recognition works better than reproduction; • Episodic memory is erased and is converted into genetic memory;	• Execution abilities, reaction time, speed of processing and selective attention improves; • Children of PC and Class. I / II know that people retain easier if they study more time, that people forget different things; • Around the age of 6-7 years, many children can count in mind;
3. How does the language improve?	
Pre-school	***School***
• The vocabulary increases, they begin to use plural forms, past tense and know the difference between I, you and us; • Sentences become complex, the pronunciation and grammar improves; • Use a polite language, can remain at a topic of conversation more time;	• The use of vocabulary, morphology and syntax becomes more complex, but the main sector of language development is the pragmatics;
4. What progress occur in motor development?	
Pre-school	***School***
• Children are making significant progress; • As they physically develop they	• Motor skills continue to enrich themselves; • Games practiced by children

manage better to determine their body to execute what they want;	during breaks tend to be informal and spontaneously organized;
5. How is self-concept developed?	
Pre-school	***School***
• Small children do not see the difference between the actual self and the ideal self; • Self-esteem tends to be unrealistic, reflecting adult approval • Understanding emotions is gradually developing	• It becomes more realistic, children form their representation systems; • They can better regulate negative emotions through conscious control; • Empathy and prosocial behavior increases; • Emotional development is influenced by parents' reactions

Defining for the children's progress is the way they connect information and specific mental processes of learning. The involvement of a variety of mental processes enhances the formative character of the education and creates favorable conditions for further learning activity. As a process, learning involves a number of psychological components, different from one child to another.

As a result, the organization of learning situations is to ensure favorable conditions for learning activities as a complex process of information and training, of knowledge assimilation and development of the structural components of the human personality. This involves creating learning situations that will lead to "the child's active participation in the learning process through direct interaction" (Boca, 2009).

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THE CHILDHOOD CREATIVITY

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Abstract

The childhood age is mostly ruled by the imaginary, full of unusual things that are born from the children's incapacity of understanding certain events and happenings and from the need of a satisfying explanation for them. The childish imagination reaches its peak during the pre-school age when, through the meeting with stories, fairy tales, poems or any creations of this kind, its imagination is stimulated and fed, letting the child to create its own new structures based on unusual associations. It is need to be considered that these associations are firstly due to the weakness of thought and not to the power of imagination because, during this period, among the reproductive imagination, the creativity and the child's capacity of integrating the possible into the real are barely starting to form themselves. Thus, children are starting to be seriously confused by the thin line that is drawn between reality and fantasy.

The imagination is the only thing that shapes thoughts, words and pictures. It's also the only thing that starts creativity, being the central core of it. Everything that a child is creating is the result of its imagination, from the exact sciences to the artistic ones. And in this fact, literature can be easily placed too. And that, for the child of pre-school age can be displayed under multiple forms : stories, teaching games, roleplay games, dramatization, memorizing, image lecturing, creating stories with a given beginning or ending and the list could go on as the teacher finds new methods. Being in the situation of graphically represent a certain scene from a story or a character, the child usually creates its own story. Their entire inner life can be created in a drawing. And so, the child is imagining.

Cuvinte cheie: creativity, childhood, children literature, creative writing, story telling

Domeniul psihologiei copilului cuprinde o întreagă paletă de elemente ce conturează din punct de vedere psihologic copilul, oferind o perspectivă evolutivă a creșterii mintale, prezentând dezvoltarea conduitelor până la faza aceea de tranziție pe care o constituie adolescența, cea care marchează inserția individului în societatea adultă." (Piaget și Inhelder, 2005) Aceste elemente sunt într-o strânsă complementaritate, ele fiind rezultatul interacțiunii factorilor externi – mediul social și educația, și a factorilor interni – ereditatea. Totuși, în nenumărate rânduri, avem tendința de a înclina balanța către unul dintre acești

factori, în detrimentul celorlalți. Astfel, fără a nega rolul covârșitor al celorlalți factori care influențează dezvoltarea psihoindividuală a copilului, mediul, care „include toți factorii naturali, artificiali și socioumani (socioculturali) care pot influența individul" (Potolea, et al. 2008), pare să aibă o mai mare influență asupra deprinderilor de lectură ale copilului.

În încercarea de a oferi o definiție cât mai exactă a creativității, în anul 1959 cercetătorul în domeniul psihologiei sociale, Irving Taylor a analizat peste o sută de definiții, concluzionând prin evidențierea a cinci nivele de creativitate (Dragu și Cristea, 2003), după cum urmează:

- *creația expresivă* – forma fundamentală a creativității ce implică o expresie independentă, în care îndemânarea, originalitatea și calitatea produsului nu sunt importante;
- *creația productivă* – acea formă de creativitate cu un grad ridicat de orientare în vederea îmbunătățirii tehnicii de execuție;
- *creația inventivă* – formă a creativității care necesită flexibilitate în perceperea unor părți separate ca un produs nou;
- *creația inovatoare* – este o formă rară de creativitate; presupune o modificare semnificativă a fundamentelor sau principiilor care guvernează un întreg domeniu de artă sau știință;
- *creativitatea emergentă* – cea mai înaltă formă a creativității; apariția unui produs, a unei idei sau a unui concept total nou, la nivelul cel mai profund și mai abstract.

Așadar, definirea creativității este un proces asupra căruia încă nu s-a căzut de acord, cercetătorii analizând toate fațetele acestui proces. În *Marele dicționar al psihologiei*, creativitatea este definită drept „capacitatea de a produce noi opere, de a dobândi noi comportamente, de a găsi noi soluții la o problemă." (Bloch et al. 2006)

Prin urmare, un alt cercetător, Graham Wallas, profesor de Științe Politice la London School of Economics, în cartea sa *The Art of Thought* a stabilit existența, în interiorul procesului creativ, a patru etape de creație, după ce, inițial, în 1926, propusese un model ce cuprindea 5 faze (pregătirea, incubația, intimarea, iluminarea și verificarea) restrânse ulterior la cele prezentate mai jos:

1. *prepararea* – conștientizarea existenței unei probleme și informarea asupra acesteia;
2. *incubația* – o perioadă de așteptare în care problema rămâne nerezolvată în așteptarea următorului pas;
3. *iluminarea* apare pe neașteptate și reprezintă rezolvarea problemei identificate în momentul preparării;
4. *verificarea* – ultimul pas în procesul creative, cel de revizuire.

Creativitatea este un proces mental și social complex ce presupune o atenție deosebită atât asupra produsului procesului cât și asupra procesului însuși. „Este o activitate conjugată a tuturor funcțiilor psihice ale persoanei, intelectuale,

afective și volitive, conștiente și inconștiente, native și dobândite, de ordin biologic, psihofiziologic și social, implicate în producerea noului și originalului." (Dragu și Cristea, 2003)

În funcție de capacitatea de creație, au fost stabilite mai multe tipologii creative (Dragu și Cristea, 2003):

- *tipul necreativ* – la o capacitate mică de stocare a informațiilor (cunoștințe relativ puține) se poate asocia o capacitate combinatorie mică pe un fond energetic stimulatoriu scăzut;
- *tipul necreativ-volitiv* – în cazul fondului energetic stimulatoriu relativ ridicat s-ar putea să avem de-a face cu copiii care vor să realizeze ceva, cheltuiesc energie, se frământă, dar rezultatele nu sunt pe măsura cantității de energie cheltuită; este vorba de o energie neproductivă, ineficientă, ce trebuie canalizată spre alte activități decât cele creative; acești copii se află sub imperiul sintagmei *vor, dar nu pot*; la ei predomină latura afectiv-motivațională în detrimentul celorlalte, mai ales a celei combinatorii;
- *tipul cumulativ* – copii care stochează multe cunoștinte, din domenii variate, dar care se găsesc în imposibilitatea de a le combina într-o manieră nouă și originală spre a crea ceva; sunt copii instruiți, cu un volum apreciabil de cunoștințe, dar sterili, neproductivi; acest tip cumulativ poate fi un elev volitiv, care dispune de un font energetic motivațional ce se manifestă preponederent în acumularea de fapte.
- *tipul combinativ-volitiv* – o cantitate relativ mică de informație (cunoștinte nu prea bogate), s-ar putea să se asocieze la unii copii cu o mare capacitate combinatorie, ceea ce le-ar permite să realizeze un indice de creativitate mediu sau chiar ridicat; sunt copii cu o fantezie bogată și inteligență prodigioasă, care creează parcă din nimic; ei prind *din zbor* cunoștințele transmise, au capacitatea de a realiza lucrări inedite în planul creativității; ei își confruntă și susțin cu tărie opiniile, militează permanent pentru transpunerea lor în fapt; planul și realizarea lor creatoare se suprapun;
- *tipul combinativ-nevolitiv* – copilul ce se încadrează într-un asemenea tip, întrunește toate calitățile de ordin combinativ, dar mai puțin disponibilitățile volitive. Din cauza lipsei de energie, cele mai multe realizări creative rămân în stadiul de proiect, neputând să le finalizeze.
- *tipul cumulativ-combinativ-volitiv* – o cantitate mare de informație, cunoștințe multe, profunde și variate, se pot asocia cu o mare capacitate combinatorie pe un fond energetic stimulatoriu ridicat; suntem în fața geniului creativ; sunt cazurile cele mai fericite, dar cele mai rare; copiii ce aparțin acestui tip nu rămân de obicei la un singur obiect de învățământ, ci tind să iradieze și în celelalte; cu cât energia lor este mai mare, cu atât capacitatea de a se manifesta multilateral, de a crea multe elemente noi și originale, de a le finaliza, este mai mare;
- *tipul combinativ-imaginativ* – funcția combinatorie lucrând în exces,

imaginația sa foarte bogată iese adesea din sfera posibilului, trecând în domeniul visului irealizabil; sunt elevi cu idei fanteziste, nerealiste;

- *tipul combinativ-critic* – la acest tip, imaginația și gândirea critică se găsesc în echilibru; imaginația are curs liber, apoi este supusă cenzurii severe a rațiunii; asemenea copii au idei fecunde, realiste, noi și originale;
- *tipul combinativ-hipercritic* – la un asemenea tip, funcția critică se realizează în exces; fantezia și inteligența lui pot produce idei noi și originale, dar majoritatea lor sunt ucise în embrion, deci creativitatea, în cele din urmă, este nulă;
- *tipul ideativ* – este vorba de acei copii la care predomină latura ideativă, având la bază eureme de acumulare și comprehensiune, eurema asociativ-combinatorie; sunt indicați pentru activități de concepție, deoarece găsesc soluții ingenioase în variate situații;
- *tipul ideativ-imagistic* – la cei care aparțin acestui tip, ideația și capacitatea de vizualizare a ideilor sunt în echilibru; orice idee are posibilitatea de a fi vizualizată;
- *tipul imaginistic* – este dominat de vizualizarea ideilor și are mai puțin capacitatea de a elabora idei noi și originale; asemenea copii au vocație pentru transpunerea originală a ideilor altora;
- *tipul ideativ-imagistic-obiectual* – are ca notă specifică armonia între structura ideativă imagistică și obiectuală; copiii acestui tip elaborează idei noi și originale, le pot vizualiza și transpune în practică.

Aceste tipologii creative evidențiază atât abilitatea sau inabilitatea indivizilor de a crea, cât și forma în care creativitatea se manifestă. În funcție de aceste tipologii creative se pot stabili modalități de stimulare a creativității, accentul căzând pe calitățile înnăscute sau dobândite ale individului. Prin extensie, aceste proceduri pot fi aplicate și la nivel preșcolar, când procesele psihice sunt într-o fază incipientă și pot fi erijate în direcția dorită prin desfășurarea unor activități ce presupun implicarea proceselor creative.

Multitudinea elementelor de noutate, de neînțeles determină copilul să fabuleze, ajungându-se chiar și la minciună, atât ca produs al fanteziei cât și ca modalitate de evitare a unor pedepse. În procesul de creație concură nu doar creativitatea și imaginația ci și elemente de ideație, capacități de figurație, deprinderi și priceperi ce pot fi ușor observabile în desenele copiilor. Tehnica desenului presupune nu doar deprinderi motrice ci și perceperea afectivă a culorilor utilizate. Prin intermediul culorilor viața lăuntrică a copiilor prinde viață și ia forme dintre cele mai interesante.

Un alt aspect al creativității infantile îl constituie dezvoltarea sensibilității, a simțului dramatizării și al predilecției pentru jocurile de rol. De asemenea, capacitatea evaluativă a copiilor reprezintă un alt aspect al creativității ce poate fi dezvoltat încă de la vârstă preșcolară, prin solicitarea propriilor opinii în raport cu un act creativ și a argumentării acestora. Astfel, copilul este

determinat să se raporteze la un sistem de valori și să evalueze plecând de la un etalon bine stabilit.

Pentru a putea determina caracterul creativ al unor produse, trebuie ținut cont de parametri de bază ai creativității: fluență, flexibilitate și originalitate. Pe lângă acești parametri, unii autori mai vizează și noutatea, unicitatea, valoarea și utilitatea socială. Mai mult, cercetătorii S. P. Bessemer și D. J. Treffinger grupează parametrii creativi în trei grupe, menite să evalueze performanțele creative: 1. noutatea; 2. soluția; 3. elaborarea și sinteza. Vasile Pavelcu restrânge aceste criterii la unul singur, validarea socială largă. Trebuie menționat faptul că un număr mare de cercetători consideră mediul socio-cultural și cel familial drept factorul cel mai important care poate influența creativitatea atât pozitiv cât și negativ.

În ceea ce privește elevii creativi, mai multe studii realizate de către psihologi de renume precum A. Eriksson, A. J. Cropley și S. Torrance atestă faptul că pot fi trasate câteva caracteristici specifice acestora. Astfel, cercetările au demonstrat faptul că elevii creativi sunt egocentrici, egoiști, inadaptabili, insubordonați, nerăbdători, curioși. De foarte multe ori aceste trăsături duc la inhibarea creativității în vederea incluziunii sociale. Dornici de apartenența la grup, copiii se conformează tendinței sociale generale pentru a putea fi acceptați de grup. Acest aspect se răsfrânge și asupra creațiilor personale.

Creativitatea este un răspuns al imaginației la un stimul extern, răspuns manifestat într-un produs nou, original și inovativ, cu impact asupra societății. Creativitatea infantilă sau, după unii autori, creativitatea expresivă (Sălăvăstru, 2004), se manifestă în cele mai rudimentare moduri. De la simple mâzgăleli la compoziții neașteptate. Unii autori consideră că fiecare dintre noi suntem capabili de creativitate productivă, cel puțin. Atunci, cum se explică incapacitatea unora de a crea? Imaginația singură nu ajută la nimic dacă nu poate fi materializată. Creativitatea nu apare ca o consecință a imaginației. Nu este suficient să-ți imaginezi pentru a putea crea. „A fi creativ înseamnă a vedea același lucru ca toată lumea, dar a te gândi la ceva diferit.” (Roco, 2001) Pentru a demonstra această afirmație elocventă, propun atenției un exercițiu de creativitate. Prin urmare, unor copii de vârste diferite li s-a cerut să scrie o poveste pornind de la aceleași imagini, ca factor declanșator (cele două imagini aparțin artistului grafic Neli Moruț). Imaginile au fost realizate astfel încât să nu facă trimitere la nicio narațiune cunoscută de aceștia (evitând constrângerea ideatică raportată la un model prestabilit). Din acest punct, totul ia o turnură diferită în funcție de capacitățile creative ale subiecților.

De remarcat este faptul că imaginea este o sabie cu două tăișuri. Un număr foarte mare de subiecți s-au limitat la o enumerare sumară a elementelor compozite, fără a putea merge mai departe. Limitarea la cadrul imaginii demonstrează faptul că imaginația este îngrădită de elementele compozite: culoare, poziție spațială, formă, natura personajelor etc., în timp ce pentru un număr redus de subiecți imaginea a reprezentat un element declanșator. Aceștia

nu s-au limitat la o simplă descriere ci au creat o adevărată aventură, uneori anterioară situației redate de imagine, alteori posterioară acesteia.

Drumul de la text la imagine este unul liniar. Ilustratorii, în cele mai multe cazuri, redau prin desen indicațiile oferite de text. Dacă textul spune ceva, ilustratorul nu poate reda altceva. Bunăoară, dacă în text este menționat că personajul are părul albastru, ilustratorul nu-l poate desena maro, altfel relația dintre text și imagine s-ar rupe sau, pur și simplu ar înceta să existe. Totuși, drumul de la imagine la text este altul. În timp ce imaginea spune o poveste pe care o putem intui printr-o simplă lectură a imaginii, ea poate, de asemenea, crea o alta cu totul nouă, insolită.

Pentru a susține această afirmație, exercițiul de creativitate descris mai sus, a fost aplicat unor copii cu vârste cuprinse între 7 și 14 ani, ce au constituit un eșantion de 320 de subiecți. Aceste grupe au fost stabilite în funcție de etapele de dezvoltare psihică a copiilor, astfel: prima grupă – 7-9 ani; a doua grupă – 9-11 ani; a treia grupă – 11-14 ani.

Rezultatele au stabilit diferențele de nivel perceptiv, cognitiv și creativ pe marginea *lecturii unei imagini* date, având la bază criteriul dezvoltării psihice. În funcție de aceste rezultate se pot stabili coordonatele imaginilor utilizate în redarea textelor, determinând astfel o lectură corectă a mesajului transmis de imagine (în condițiile în care în momentul asocierii celor două variabile, *imagine* și *text*, copilul percepe inițial mesajul transmis de imagine, în detrimentul textului).

Mai jos sunt prezentate, selectiv, câteva dintre poveștile scrise de copii.

CEALALTĂ LUME

Este o dimineață liniștită de vară. Orașul este încă adormit. O geană de lumină se zărește la răsărit. În curând, măritul soare se va ridica pe bolta cerească în răcoarea dimineții. Misterul învăluie pădurile de pe dealurile din jurul orașului. Toate animalele sunt în culcușurile lor. Numai Lupul și Iepurele sunt de pază pe cea mai înaltă stâncă a muntelui. Își îndreptară privirea către orășel.

– Ce liniște este acum în oraș! remarcă Iepurele.

– Numai orologiul din turnul bisericii rupe tăcerea!

– Mi-ar plăcea să mă transform în copil și să mă duc la școala din oraș. Apoi să fac o școală a iepurașilor în pădure.

– Dacă vrei, ți-aș putea da niște indicații, spuse Lupul. Am auzit copiii vorbind când au venit într-o expediție în pădure. Îi însoțea profesorul de biologie.

– Ce se studiază la școala oamenilor?

– Cei mici învață să scrie și să citească. Mai au și activități recreative din care învață cum să se poarte unii cu ceilalți, învață să deseneze, să cânte și să se joace.

– Îmi place ce aud! spuse Iepurele. Dar cei mari ce învață?

– Învață despre lume, despre relațiile dintre oameni, despre meserii și despre cum să le practice. În timpul lor liber din expediție, copiii se organizau în

două echipe și alergau după un obiect căruia îi spuneau minge. Am auzit că jucau fotbal. Erau fericiți și entuziasmați. Se distrau așa bine împreună!

– M-ai convins! Trebuie să facem și noi o școală unde să învățăm lucruri noi și să ne simțim bine împreună.

Conversația a fost întreruptă de zgomotul din oraș. Străzile erau din ce în ce mai aglomerate. Grupuri de oameni mergeau în toate direcțiile. Din curtea școlii se auzeau glasurile cristaline ale copiilor. Cei doi prieteni de pe stâncă visau și admirau cealaltă lume, lumea oamenilor.

David D., 11 ani

SALVAREA PĂDURII

Într-o zi senină de vară, într-o pădure care se afla la poalele munților semeți, un lup și un iepure stăteau de vorbă.

– Lupule, zise iepurașul, vezi utilajele alea de construcție din depărtare?

– Le văd!

– Ei bine, cred că oamenii vor să-și extindă orașul și asta înseamnă că vor tăia din pădurea noastră!

– Nu se poate! Să facem ceva!

Astfel că, lupul și iepurele au început să-și caute ajutoare. La scurt timp, l-au găsit pe vultur și l-au rugat să survoleze orașul pentru a mai afla informații. Între timp, ei l-au găsit pe urs. Lupul l-a rugat pe acesta să se ducă în oraș, să distrugă utilajele și să le ia cu el pe veverițele înarmate cu nuci. Între timp, vulturul s-a întors cu doi saci uriași plini cu bani, aur și diamante. Acesta i-a găsit într-o dubiță deschisă care era parcată în fața băncii. După ce s-a întors și ursul, cei patru s-au așezat la sfat. Într-un final, au hotărât să cumpere orașul și să-i pună pe oameni să aibă grijă de pădure. „Un plan genial!” s-au gândit ei.

Așa că, cei patru au plecat spre oraș însoțiți de 200 de veverițe, 50 de ratoni, 100 de vulpi, 100 de mistreți și 50 de corbi.

Când au ajuns în fața primăriei, lupul a bătut cu coada în ușă și a intrat împreună cu iepurele.

Când i-a văzut, primarul s-a speriat, însă capul de cerb prins pe perete a zâmbit mulțumit.

– Domnule primar, vrem să cumpărăm orașul!

– Poți vorbi? a spus acesta înspăimântat.

– Sigur! Suntem în secolul XX, nu în epoca de piatră să nu știm să vorbim! Poftiți banii pentru cumpărarea orașului!

– De unde îi aveți?

– De la bancă!

– O să vă bage la pușcărie!

– Nu puteți! În legislația voastră nu scrie nimic de arestul animalelor!

– Și dacă nu vrem să vă dăm orașul?

– Uitați-vă pe fereastră!

Pe geam se puteau vedea veverițele, vulturul, corbii și mistreții care distrugeau casele și speriau oamenii.

– Bine! Din acest moment orașul este al vostru! Dar cu populația ce se va întâmpla?

– Vor munci în pădure pentru a o curăța. Iar dumneavoastră veți intra la pușcărie pentru că aveți în birou banii furați de la bancă.

După aceasta, lupul și iepurele au ieșit din primărie și s-au întors alături de celelalte animale în pădure.

Deodată, în spatele celor doi se auzi vocea aspră a ursului:

– Hei, băieți! Ce faceți aici? Iar visați și urziți planuri?

Alexandru G., 14 ani

În primul caz – imaginea inspirată din realitate, s-a observat reiterarea atât a temelor sociale contemporane (lupta dintre bine și rău, sub aspectul problemelor legate de universul social și familial, angoase personale, tulburări interioare), cât și a legendelor urbane pline de supereroi și monștri. Dihotomia dintre cele două lumi, cea a oamenilor și cea a animalelor este evidentă în toate creațiile copiilor. Totuși, personificările apar în toate poveștile lor. Astfel, animalele prind glas, devin conștiente de condiția lor inferioară oamenilor dar, asemenea acestora luptă pentru supraviețuire, pentru educație, pentru o viață calitativă bună (apar frecvent teme legate de poluare, defrișare, protejarea naturii și a diverselor specii).

VULPOIUL ȘI FATA

A fost odată ca niciodată, la marginea unei împărății, o căsuță modestă în care trăia o fată tare frumoasă. Cu părul galben, unduind până la brâu, cu ochii albaștri ca cerul. Ea aducea lumină și bucurie în jurul ei și vorbele ei erau ca o mângâiere pentru ceilalți. Se dusese vestea în lume despre frumusețea ei. Așa a auzit despre frumoasa fată și un dragon care trăia la marginea acestei lumi. Și, cum se plictisise singur, într-o zi a hotărât să o fure. Zis și făcut! De acum, fata era prizoniera dragonului, fiind dusă de acesta în ținutul lui. Acolo, într-un copac imens, căci așa erau copacii pe vremea aceea, își avea dragonul casa.

Nu-i lipsea nimic fetei dar, dorul de părinți, de casă și de oameni o istovea.

Era din ce în ce mai tristă. Pentru a o înveseli, dragonul îi construise fetei un leagăn pe care-l aninase între crengile unui copac din fața casei. Dar fata se așeza în leagăn și rămânea împietrită. Pe lângă copac curgea un râu în care lacrimile ei cădeau și se pierdeau în apa limpede. Degeaba îi aducea dragonul cele mai frumoase flori, cele mai gustoase fructe, cele mai strălucitoare rochii și pietre prețioase. Fata era tot mai tristă. Într-o zi, ieșind din casă, zări lângă ușă un vulpoi care stătea cu capul pe lăbuțe. Când se uită în ochii fetei, se îndrăgosti pe loc de aceasta. Deodată, el începu să vorbească și-i spuse fetei că, dacă vrea să ajungă în lumea ei, trebuie să urce pe spatele lui și să se țină bine! Fata îl ascultă și au mers, și au mers, trecând prin văi și munți, prin păduri întunecoase până când, într-o zi, au ajuns aproape de casa fetei. Vulpoiul îi spuse că aici drumurile lor se despart. Vrând să îi mulțumească, fata îl îmbrățișă cu dragoste. Deodată, vulpoiul se transformă într-un tânăr chipeș. El îi povesti fetei că fusese fermecat de o vrăjitoare și transformat în vulpoi.

S-au luat de mână, au mers la casa fetei și apoi la părinții băiatului. Au făcut nuntă mare și au trăit fericiți până la adânci bătrâneți. Și uite așa, poate mai trăiesc și astăzi dacă lumea lor o fi fost fermecată.

Vlad C., 12 ani

LUMEA ANIMALELOR

A fost odată, într-o împărăție a animalelor, o fată așa de frumoasă… părul lung și blond și ochii albaștrii. Fata era de o bunătate rar întâlnită. Singura ei problemă era că acum 18 ani, când era mică, a fost blestemată de o vrăjitoare ca la fiecare lună plină să se transforme în vulpe și să uite de părțile ei omenești. Când era mică, mama ei deținea un cristal care o ținea în forma ei omenească dar, când mama sa a pierit, a început din nou să se transforme, până când, acum două nopți, când era în forma ei de vulpe, a auzit de la haita de lupi că poate găsi dimmon-ul „Cristalul Fermecat”. Trebuia să urmeze o hartă știută doar de mama ei. Mama fetei îi dăduse harta când era pe patul de moarte. Era ascunsă în ușa celor o mie de basme încâlcite. Doar fata avea cheia. După ce a urmat harta a ajuns la un obstacol. Trebuia să spună următoarea vrajă la lună plină:

„Toți ca mine, toți ca voi, să nu iasă cu război!
Piatra de o voi afla eu lumea voi controla!”

După ce fata a recitat vraja, a scăpat de blestem dar, de-a lungul anilor, se îndrăgostise de un vulpoi din lumea cealaltă și acum, că nu se mai putea transforma la lună plină, nu îl va mai putea vedea niciodată. Fata a trebuit să aleagă între cele două lumi. Astfel, preafrumoasa prințesă, dădu piatra unui dragon și-l rugă să o ducă pe muntele numit „Năpăstuire” și să o distrugă.

Fata a ales adevărata dragoste.

Iarina B., 10 ani

În cel de-al doilea caz – imaginea de inspirație fantastică, rezultatele au fost oarecum previzibile, trimiterea vizuală către lumea fantastică accesând în subconștientul copiilor tematica basmului (prințesa în pericol, prietenia dintre aceasta și viețuitoarele pădurii, eroul salvator, pericolul iminent, călătoria inițiatică etc.) adusă în prim plan de reînvierea romanelor în serie prin intermediul ecranizărilor moderne: Stăpânul inelelor (J. R. R. Tolkien), Harry Potter (J. K. Rowling), Cronicile din Narnia (C. S. Lewis) etc. Totuși, dincolo de tematica basmului, transced în aceste povești trăiri interioare, emoții puternice (iubire, ură, teamă etc.) și tulburări emoționale specifice pubertății, o perioadă extrem de labilă și solicitantă din pur de vedere afectiv. Nevoia de apartenență la un grup, nevoia de exteriorizare a sentimentelor și a idealurilor personale sunt doar o mică parte din emoțiile transmise de copii prin intermediul cuvintelor.

„Poveștile în imagini pot fi conforme sau diforme față de realitatea percepută de adulți. Copiii le vor recunoaște în funcție de convențiile fanteziei și nu de dimensiunile lor raționalizabile (deci falsificabile). *Empirismul* cărților pentru copii este el însuși o iluzie de reprezentare adultă. Abia *răspunsul* la imagine al copilului va ilustra profunzimea ideologică a codurilor textuale”. (Rogojinaru, 1998)

Posibilitățile de stimulare a creativității sunt nenumărate și bine structurate. Pe lângă activitățile oferite de mediul școlar, foarte multe proiecte, programe și activități extracurriculare au ca obiectiv prioritar realizarea unor acte creative, menite să dezvolte simțul artistic prin orice mijloace. „A dezvolta capacitățile creative ale gândirii înseamnă a cultiva flexibilitatea, abilitatea de a gândi abstract, originalitatea, fluiditatea expunerii ideilor, capacitatea de a stabili asemănări și deosebiri, disponibilitățile de elaborare, organizare, reordonare.” (Dragu și Cristea, 2003)

Așadar, implicarea copiilor în activități ce presupun creativitate, poate fi un proces extrem de dificil, în special dacă se urmărește dezvoltarea capacității creative. În primul rând, cadrul didactic trebuie să orienteze atitudinea și gândirea copiilor spre nou și neexplorat, astfel încât să permită dezvoltarea unui spirit creativ, liber și independent. Apoi, trebuie creat un ambient propice manifestării libere, spontane, fără frica de a greși, cultivându-se astfel și o atitudine specifică față de riscul de a fi criticat, evaluat, evitându-se tensiunea intelectuală. O altă

modalitate de a stimula creativitatea o constituie cultivarea încrederii în sine și încurajarea efortului creator încă de la primele manifestări. Activitatea copilului este redată prin intermediul imaginației, realitatea fiind construită din propriile sale imagini. Planul real este, de foarte multe ori, interferat cu cel al închipuirii, copilul fiind incapabil să diferențieze dorințele, de realitate. Așa apare imaginația creatoare. Ascultând povești, povestiri, basme, el reconstruiește mental secvențele narative (le inversează, le omite, le amplifică, inventează pur și simplu altele noi), dramatizările fiind un mijloc excelent de exersare a imaginației creatoare alături de artele plastice și cele grafice.

Creațiile copilului dovedesc că viața sa lăuntrică este efervescentă dar, totodată subliniază și faptul că intențiile depășesc posibilitățile. Unii psihologi consideră că în perioada preoperatorie a copilăriei este atins apogeul dezvoltării imaginației, dar pierd din vedere faptul că imaginația creatoare apare și datorită slăbiciunii gândirii care nu-i poate oferi copilului instrumentele necesare perceperii corecte a lumii. Astfel, imaginația reușește să creeze o punte de legătură între lumea deja cunoscută de copil și posibilitățile nebănuite ale unei lumi noi, pline de necunoscut, creativitatea fiind cea mai bună formă de exprimare a trăirilor lăuntrice ancorate firav în realitatea înconjurătoare.

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LOGIC, PSYCHOLOGY, THE LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION IN STEFAN'S ODOBLEJA CONCEPTION

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Abstract

A nation must never forget about heroes or scholars. Lately, it seems, we kinda did. The present study aims to revive the memory of the great scientist contemporaries' conception of logic, psychology, language and education, as many of his ideas are found in one form or another, covering several areas of science. By his paper La psychologie consonantiste, published in the years 1938-1939 in French Lugoj and broadcast by Maloine Librairie in Paris, translated into Romanian in 1982 and published by the Scientific and Encyclopedic Stephen Odobleja becomes one of the most influential creator science in the twentieth century, cybernetics, as his work has appeared ten years before Norbert Wiener's cybernetics.

Stefan Odobleja gives a comprehensive summary of the sciences, and research by establishing comprehensive and universal laws of all structures available for most sciences. The eight universal law consonances with the law and the law of reversibility, combined, achieved the largest integration of sciences. Odobleja apply these laws in psychology, medicine, biology, social sciences, economics, politics, pedagogy, technique. The Romanian scientist is to integrate science, similar to Einstein's physics system.

Combining in cybernetic its original interpretations of psychology, biology, anthropology and other humanities applications, Romanian scientist has built a system that shows how the world is unified by a meta underlying diversity. He redefines the mental reality and presents new truths about how nature operates and spirit, joined together in a single biosphere, essential for our continued existence.

Keywords: *consonance, cybernetics, geometric modeling, language inside energetic language, meta structure, geometric logic.*

If Stephen Odobleja had lived certainly we would be concerned not only on mathematical psychology and epistemology creation, but also on the psychology and logic thinking, a completely different perspective. This is because, really, long discussions with the isolated and sad scientist as I knew him through the years 1973-1978, when he wrote geometric logic, or so he told me, has engraved in my mind three ideas fulminating:

We should not seek, as Wittgenstein, total truth valid for all worlds, but only those around us, who is of vital interest to us. Then from the products fixed

grammatical patterns of thinking, then and mathematical thinking we can restore alive, concrete, dynamic and active thinking. From Aristotle, starting to hunt thinking, most ,,found themselves pursuing other shadows and became entangled in the complexities of verbal quagmire" (Introduction to Logic resonance Scrisul Românesc Publishing, Craiova, 1984, p. 37).

Finally, the logic seems to be disoriented in that thread they cannot be found either in algebra or grammar, metaphysics, cosmology ... but no thought in psychology was sought. And another thing, it instilled the idea that logic is the core psychology ,,axis around which revolves the whole science of the soul" (p. 41), and she opens the door to the mysteries of psychology. Moreover, Stefan Odobleja tries to present a definition of logic in mathematics and geometry. ,,Logic is a knowledge mathematized psychology, mathematics transposition thinking ... thinking in mathematical formulas - analyzing and thinking mind after Directive and mathematical models". She is ,,depicted psychology, geometrical, transposed figures analog schematic ... psychology Geometrizes increasingly more turning into logical or mental geometry" (p. 48).

In essence, however, said Odobleja definition by thinking logic (logic is the science ,, and suicidal ideas ... the genesis of ideas and intimate mechanism of thought ", p. 46) remains the most universally accepted.

We wanted to pay homage by these thoughts, on this occasion, meeting with Stephen Odobleja for psychology was, in fact, life. He kept telling all sciences are the creative expression of human thought, whose foundation could only be achieved on the basis of psychological, psychology, in turn, being reformulated as a science methodology based on a logical analysis.

Only human thinking, asserted the scientist, and he is essentially creative thinking creativity analysis of logical and psychological perspective. In his conception, genetic modeling concepts and laws is a general methodological operation, and defining them is logical. For him, an undefined concept is a simple word without meaning.

Academician Alexandru Surdu been highlighted in the Preface of *Introduction* to Logic resonance,, Briefly, logical analysis of psychology consists of geometric modeling concepts in defining and classifying them and determining logical relations between them "(p. 11).

Stephen Odobleja was born on October 22 1902 in the village of Izvorul Anestilor, Mehedinti County. He studied at Turnu - Severin and then at Bucharest, Faculty of Medicine, becoming a military doctor. During the service he worked in garrisons: Braila, Turnu-Severin, Lugoj, Dorohoi, Turda, Targoviste, Cernavoda, Bucharest and Dej. During the Second World War he worked as a regimental surgeon and chief ambulance. After the war he was retired. He died in 1978.

La psychologie consonantiste to the work of Dr. Stephen Odobleja was printed in Lugoj in 1938 and then disseminated to the bookstore Paris "Maloine". This paper appeared in French and has been translated into Romanian also

published in 1982. Odobleja in 1935, the Parisian publishing house G. Doin, the work "La phonoscopie" award-winning " Doctor Alexander Papiu general." in this work were synthesized and reversibility consistent principles underlying the general cybernetics.

It can be said that Stephen Odobleja is the creator of one of the most influential world of the twentieth century science, cybernetics, as his "Psychology consonantiste" appeared 10 years before "Cybernetics" of N. Wiener.

Odobleja gives a comprehensive summary of the sciences, and research by establishing comprehensive and universal laws of all structures available for most sciences. He is the creator of general cybernetics which has integrated eight universal laws, while Norbert Wiener, author of "Cybernetics" published in 1948, is the creator of a cyber particular, where the original is the information theory. The 8 universal laws together law consonance and the law of reversibility, taken together, represented the most extensive integration of sciences. Odobleja apply these laws in psychology, medicine, biology, social sciences, economics, politics, pedagogy, technique. The Romanian scientist is to integrate science, similar to Einstein's physics system.

Open new science, creator of general Cybernetics Odobleja was first perceived generality of reversible loop (feed-back) as a general law, mechanisms and processes governing both natural and artificial.

Odobleja developed a new understanding of psychology, treating it as a science that integrates all disciplines and technical human universe. Odobleja's pioneering psychology targeting systems, including, in the odoblejiene spirit work, all activities, limits human capabilities in the areas of science, technology, economy, politics and society in general.

Combining its original interpretations of cyber psychology, biology, anthropology and other humanities applications, Romanian scientist has built a system that shows how the world is unified by a meta-structure that underlies the diversity. He redefines the mental reality and presents new truths about how nature operates and spirit, joined together in a single biosphere, essential for our continued existence.

Odobleja admirably understood the idea of not only the system but the concept of a hierarchy of systems, starting with the more general or subtle and ending with the most basic and most accurate, the society and to the human-machine system.

In *Consonantiste Psychology* Stephen Odobleja tries to conclude a relation between language and thought. Thus, the language is externalized conception of thinking, a "translation reactive thinking", "a complex symbolic reflexes." Thinking is "all psychic interior phenomena." It is the film psychologically: the appropriation of mental processes, stream of consciousness, the ideas flow experience inner psychological processes considered synthetic or in sequence chronological, sequence and intertwining of mental processes. To think, said Odobleja it means practicing intellectual operations.

Stephen Odobleja sees no pure thinking and she is always in pictures. Thought moves or representative is the most primitive, the most natural, easiest, and most formal. Sight is the sense par excellence of thought and sense of hearing is only inter-communication and music. There is no word pure thought, or, when it reached this state of purity, she is not thinking "is verbalism, verbose pure and real."

Romanian scientist actually distinguishes two conceptions of thought. The first concept is realistic, the only admissible in science, that the sequence of psychological self is automatically being determined by universal causality, pushed by the common causes of the universe. A second concept, appointed by the Odobleja "conception anthropomorphic to animism" teaches us that the succession of mental processes is determined not by causes, but of purposes, not within but from outside, "drawn some being, mysterious and invisible soul".

Language is, in his view, a reception and acquisition tool:

- Fixation and conservation tool;
- Making tool (reminds us of our thinking)
- Instrument of reaction and expression (to communicate our ideas allow us).

He distinguishes an inner language (mentally, implicit, internal thought) and one outside (spoken, articulate explicit); Energy language (voices, sounds, signs) and one material (writing, drawing, photography, film etc.); a visual language, visual (gestures, mimicry, algebraic signs, telegraph), an acoustic language (shouting, acoustic signals sound, drums, bells) and a language of touch, smell, taste. Then there are natural languages and conventional languages; sign-language with language - suggestion.

Stephen Odobleja examines the issue of language in terms of its laws and found the following:

- Law equivalence: the richness of language is proportional to wealth thinking. Both the intensity, clarity and precision and force are directly proportional to the language of thought; speed, too. It found the language active and lively peoples is composed of monosyllabic words; language expresses the temperament and character of the people concerned;
- The law of compensation: suggestive value of a word is inversely proportional to accuracy; a word that evokes as many images is imprecise; impromptu speech thinking loses strength, because he has thought and spoken simultaneously; mind reading is the most effective;
- Reaction Law (reaction against the neologism);
- Alternation Law between neologisms and archaisms;
- Reversibility Law (image evokes the spoken word, the spoken word evokes the image); new ideas involving new words and vice versa; any sentence is reversed;
- Consonance Law : each rule change to a word tends to generalize to other (this differs from languages phonetically).To the praise of science and philosophy Romanian Stefan Odobleja is that inland thinking cyber reached

transforming force large-scale identification of computers and artificial intelligence for the benefit of human being. Stephen Odobleja cyber analogy serves the cause of interdisciplinary exchanges.

Odobleja is the creator of polarization of all sciences, including cybernetics, leaning on consonantisă psychology, he authored interdisciplinary paradigm that provides human thought, associated with computers, unsuspected possibilities of technology and science advance to other levels of knowledge for the benefit of society.Our century was concerned about the need for reunification of knowledge by creating trans studies - multi - disciplinary, for accurate classification of all sciences. But formulating criteria and laws governing them, including their harmonization in a consonant is not given to everyone to achieve. Many have begun, others have glimpsed it, but few have done it. One who felt the call and had the interior light of the mind - after so relevant expression of Axel Munthe in The Story of San Michele - was Stephen Odobleja.

Moreover, the Romanian scientist perceived cyber unity culture forms showed that when creative imagination plays an important role in science and in art, poetry, painting.

Founder of generalized cybernetics, on the highest peaks of knowledge, captured brilliantly, has beauty and incomparable nobility to recognize, whenever he had the opportunity, that: "The role of the true teacher is simply to create a passion for you educate, shape you, to instruct you and to channel this passion ... for the rest, the student must go alone, on its own feet ... each teacher's ambition should be to create assiduous readers, passionate, involved ".

After many extraordinarily simple can be seen, Stephen Odobleja with dozens and dozens of years before modern optics on the instructive - educational, prioritized, justly and firmly, formative aspect, the expense side informative education. With this in mind fundamental, it stems from a genuine cult scientist Stephen Odobleja library and reading Reading: "We must learn using the rediscovery. Learn everything by several authors: to look at each problem as many books. To use creative games, brain teasers. To get used to contemplation and meditation. "

It can be considered works of Stephen Odobleja as fundamental to the architecture of science, or a milestone for the ideas of the third millennium, releasing a cosmic force, thought to synthetic combines original cyber his interpretations of psychology, biology, anthropology and other applications humanities. He presents new truths about how nature operates spirit and redefining mental reality. Odobleja built a system that is essential to our existence perpetual fund, a meta-structure that underlies the diversity, showing how the world is unified on by an original position, the mysterious energy of life.

Perhaps the main merit of Odobleja is to be found the fundamental structure connecting man and nature. He is the creator of centering all sciences, including cybernetics, the psychology consonantiste and also the author of an interdisciplinary paradigm that can be raised foundations of all sciences.

Dr. Stephen Odobleja work with numerous scientific papers left in manuscript form at present object of study for many specialists in the country and abroad.

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THE ASSESSMENT OF THE SKILLS OF THE PUPILS IN PRIMARY SCHOOL - FROM THE INDIVIDUAL TRADITIONAL APPROACH TO THE COOPERATION IN THE WEB TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIROMENT -

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Abstract:

Modernazing of the assessing activity requires many transformations in its transition from individual traditional assessment to the collaborative one in the web environment. Of these, we mention as important: the programming and the networking of the learning and individual assessment tasks with the collaborative ones, identifying the actions of the assessment process in the context of the web collaborative environment, developing the skills to use communication and interactive learning, assuring the reflexive activities and the adjusting feedback.

Through the undertaken research project, we studied the effectiveness of the collaborative assessment using the weblogs and teaching practice improvement regarding their positive effects in pupils skills assessment, at the expense of the traditional individual assessment.

The basic method of our research was the focus-group. The investigation batch consisted of 50 primary school teachers who teach in III and IV grades. In the undertaken study, we proposed to prove that, teachers' informing of the main benefic effects of the collaborative assessment using the weblogs, determines their integration into the current assessing practices and the rethinking of the hierarchy of pupils learning results.

The research results were positive, determining the development of some skills to the teachers in order to sustain the collaborative weblog pupils assessment.

Keywords: assessment skills, traditional individual assessment, cooperative assessment, weblog environment.

Introduction

The problematic of school assessment was very diversified and complicated recording a significant mutation: passing from valuation and certification of "what the pupil knows" to "what the pupil knows to do" and especially of "the way he proceeds to be a performer and also to obtain the success"(Manolescu 2004).

The assessment must be regarded as a process that promote learning and not as an extern action unfolded by the teacher concerning on "what he does" and

"how the pupil does". Being integrated in the action of learning, the assessment requires an increase attention also from the teacher but for the pupil, concerning the involved processes in the action of learning and about the causes that can identify mistakes and about the stimulating factors for knowledge.

In this way, the most important is the implication of pupil to perfect his own learning, as an answer of the determinations of the evaluative act, regarded as a process of certification or acknowledgement. The assessment gets the values of a reflexive process in which the one who learns becomes aware of his own acts and of himself, and aware of his own capacities and the teacher becomes a guide who directs him to attainment the informative-formative objectives.

Online environment of learning and assessment represents a place in which every requirement may be addressed and where pupils may interact different from face-to-face interplay, as in the classroom (Davidson-Shivers and Rasmussen 2006).

On the other hand, online learning and face-to-face assessment can be combined to create an efficient medium to unfold their activities. In this way, online and face-to-face interaction and communication have also some individual advantages, but also combined advantages resulting blended learning.

In the specialty literature, blended learning is presented as an integration of internet-based learning and face- to- face learning (Bonk and Graham 2006; Kerres and Witt 2003; Rooney 2003). In the assessment medium, blended learning, skills assessment involves: messenger, tele-video, conferencing, debate rooms, forums, emails and web-skills, all these being very important for teachers (Cuhadar 2008).

Interactive teaching strategies of teaching- learning corresponded with assessment, lead to the efficacious of teacher's activity with his pupils. The Learning process represents a correlation of all these three processes of teaching, learning and assessment, essentials and complementary which cannot be separated, only by theoretical reasons.

The assessment strategies focused on learning and also the dialogued ones, formative and formatore apply for the interactive assessment strategies in web technological environment.

Weblogs or blogs involves interactive web skills communication 2.0 in web technological environment. Blogs are defined as web environment easy to create which involves texts, images, audio and video files, which can be shared and updated individually from different locations and at different times (Baggetun and Wasson 2006; Glogoff 2003; Martindale and Wiley 2005).

Using blogs in education provides teachers and pupils the opportunity to interact between them and also with other persons. Blogs raise pupils individual responsibility, recording performance and help them to have a critical thinking, reading other pupils' comments about their posted individual performances in their entertainment space. (Du and Wagner 2007; Shelly and Gunter 2010).

Postmodern assessment transfers the assessment focused on the teacher's

initiative of controlling to that, which is focused on the pupil's initiative, to reflect all the time on the process of knowledge in which he is involved. From this point of view, co-operation learning integrates organic the assessment and also the self assessment.

The objectives of the co-operative assessment are: the quality of assessment by meetings of group's members to establish the assessment objectives; cognitive processes and application of the assessment strategies by standard tests; abilities and competences by tests composed by teachers; attitudes and opinions of pupils by their written compositions or debates; abilities of working by posting comments, texts, images, audio-video files which can be shared and updated, messenger, tele - video, conferencing, debate rooms, forums, emails.

The way in which all these co - operation activities are structured, establishes different types of interaction between pupils, which can also influence the quality and quantity of results of these activities. From this point of view, co - operation learning involves the hypothesis- that the way in which the activities are planned, they will establish the quality of the interaction between pupils. The results of the activities are the consequences of the interaction between pupils.

One of the main elements which must be created in class is the positive interdependence or the co-operation. The positive interdependence encourages the interaction between persons who work together, stimulating the success of every member to contribute reaching common objectives. This is named as an interaction based on co- operation and stimulation.

The negative interdependence is characterized as an each other obstruct of the members in a group to reach an aim, being named interaction based on opposition and competition. The interaction doesn't exist when members of a group work independently. These types of interaction have different consequences.

Graham and Harris (2009) consider that individual web environment based on blended instruction, can improve systematically scanty features elaborating a good plan for learning, using the timely strategies, necessary and sufficient applications and significant reviews.

The objectives of the research project were:

- Studying the efficient co – operative assessment using weblogs;
- Improving the pedagogic teaching experience regarding the positive effects of weblogs evaluating pupils' competences to the prejudice of traditional, individual assessment.

We proposed as a general hypothesis:

If teachers are well informed about the main effects and their benefits of the assessment by co – operation using weblogs, then this will establish the motivation of pupils' learning and rethinking the hierarchy of criteria for assessment of student learning outcomes in web environment.

Specific hypothesis:

1. If we inform teachers at the organized focus group about the main beneficial effects of the assessment in web environment, then these

will identify the necessity for developing blended learning abilities to motivate learning and raising pupils performance;

2. If we require surveyed teachers to prioritize the criteria for assessing student outcomes compared to traditional, individual assessment and web environment assessment, then these will rethink the hierarchy of criteria for assessing learning outcomes.

Methodology

The sample

The investigation group was composed of fifty teachers from primary education, who are teaching in the third and fourth grade of the schools in Craiova, Bechet, Băilești and Poiana Mare.

Methods

The methods of our researches were the focus group and analysis, based on questionnaire. Using the analysis method based on questionnaire, I applied a questionnaire to the teachers in primary education, who are teaching in the third and fourth grade.

Instruments

To demonstrate the major impact of assessment in web technological environment on student learning outcomes, due to support motivational and interactive participation to improve learning and school performance, we've proposed the expansion of a focus group composed of fifty teachers from primary education who are teaching in the third and fourth grade of schools in Dolj county.

So, we intend that by conducting interviews in the focus group to determine teachers in every school to participate at the investigation, to realize the beneficial effects of assessment in web technological environment, the utility of cooperative techniques and interactive online communication, complementary with traditional, individual assessment and the importance of their integration in current evaluative practices by developing blended learning competences. We've also proposed to develop the competences of teachers to identify the communication and cooperation impact in web environment on the level of educational attainment of pupils.

Researches results

The teachers' review about assessment's role in technological web environment to increase students performance and their motivation for learning

We will refer to the following items of focus group (I.1; I.2; I.3; I.4) to verify the first research hypothesis aimed to determine the extent in which the

interactive cooperation and communication techniques in web environment can produce the raising of students performance and their motivation for learning.

At the I.1 item – "What are the main motivations for you, as a teacher, using the interactive cooperation and communication assessment techniques?", teachers express the following motivations: "pupils become active partners in assessment", "pupils fulfill different tasks that substantiates the understanding of school achievements", "develop pupils self- assessment capabilities" or "pupils are more motivated".

At the I.2 item – "What are the main factors depending on which you choose the assessment and learning techniques in web environment?", the study respondents identified the following factors as a landmark, choosing the assessment methods: the specific of the class, the content of the assessment, educational objectives, the required material resources and available time.

At the I.3 item – Asking teachers to list at least three socio – psycho – pedagogical characteristics of web interactive evaluation techniques, they identified: raising pupils motivation for learning, increasing the quality and efficiency of educational process in school and also the high psychological comfort of pupils and teachers.

At 1.4 item – About the benefits of skills development of blended learning as a consequence of involving pupils in different ways of web assessment, the study respondents identified many advantages, among which: "encourages the creation of a pleasant, relaxing learning environment, pupils being evaluated in their natural learning environment through contextualized tasks", "provides a perspective on student's activity on a long period of time, overcoming the disparity of the traditional assessment techniques and methods as a survey in the field and between students", reduce stress to the extent that the teacher is a counselor and the assessment has got as the first aim improving the activity and to stimulate the pupil and not to sanction him, the assessment activities include developed materials on a long time term (posts, comments, texts, images, audio-video files that can be shared or updated, messenger, tele - video, conferencing, debate rooms, forums, emails).

The ranking criteria for the assessment of learning outcomes in response to traditional, individual assessment

To obtain the adhesion of teachers to use more often the assessment techniques and the web environment and other combinations of all these with the classic ones, I asked them first to order the assessment results in ranks depending on the frequency of the current evaluative practice and to assign the rank depending on their opinion on the hierarchy of learning outcomes.

As graphical representations below, we can see that respondents teachers have established the following order of the learning outcomes depending on their request practice: the first rank – theoretical knowledge (81, 7%); the second rank – skills (68, 3%); the third rank - the capacity of solving problems (61, 0%); the fourth rank– values, attitudes (62, 8%); the fifth rank – capacity to explain and to

interpret (66, 5%); the sixth rank– investigation capacity and scientific exploration capacity (55, 5%); the seventh rank – original approaches, new ideas (56,1%); the eighth rank – capacity to formulate judgments (63,4%).

If the educational assessment put on the top ranks theoretical knowledge, skills and the capacity of solving problems, then this is justified with a high frequency of traditional, individual ways of assessment.

We noticed that the results which research subjects assigned lower scores are on higher ranks. This fact is due to the achievement of a reporting of each result of every eight ranks, but we mustn't neglect the percentage organization.

For sharing current practice closer to reality evaluation, we consider very necessary reordering the learning outcomes achieved in relation to the percentage value, in this way: the first rank - theoretical knowledge (81, 7%); the second rank – skills (68, 3%); the third rank - capacity to explain and to interpret (66, 5%); the fourth rank – capacity to formulate judgments (63, 4%); the fifth rank – values, attitudes (62, 8%); the sixth rank – capacity to solve problems (61, 0%); the seventh rank – original approaches, new ideas (56,1%); the eighth rank – investigation capacity and scientific exploration capacity (55,5%). (Figure 1).

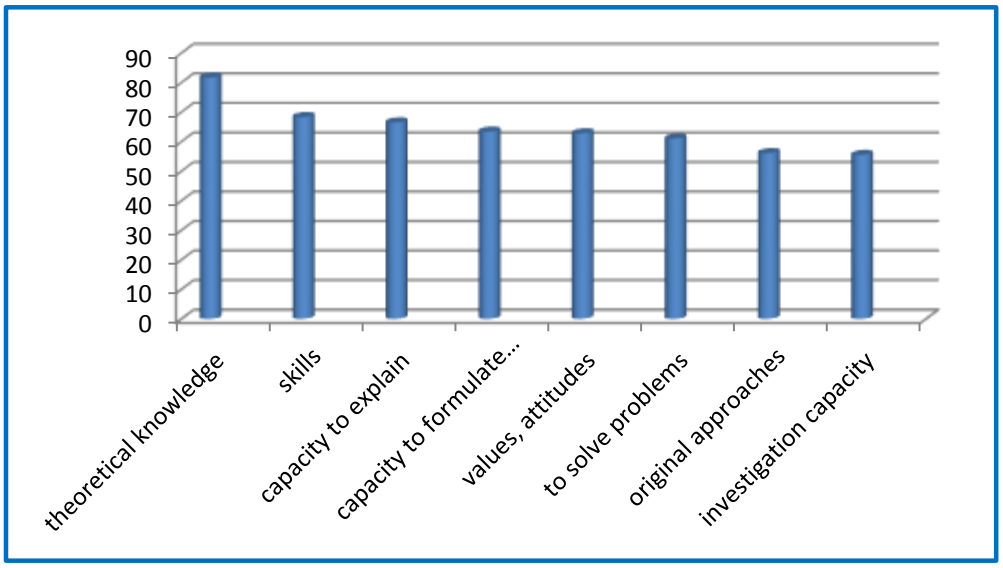

***Figure 1*. The hierarchy representation criteria for assessing learning outcomes in response to traditional, individual assessment**

The ranking criteria for the assessment of learning outcomes in response to evaluative practice in interactive web environment

We propose to all the teachers to reflect on this situation and to establish a hierarchy of the learning outcomes in response to assessment criteria in the communication and cooperation web environment.

To choose the right assessment techniques, we must know what are the students achievements and what do we want to assess. So, the respondents established in this context the following classification reporting each result at a rank: the first rank - theoretical knowledge (27, 4%) skills (25, 9%); the third rank - capacity to solve problems (21, 6%); the fifth rank – values, attitudes (30, 5%); the sixth rank – capacity to explain and to interpret (29,6%), original approaches, new ideas (23,2%); the seventh rank – investigation capacity and scientific exploration capacity (25,3%); the eighth rank – ability to formulate judgments (43,3%).

We notice that many achievements of pupils are situated on the same steps of classification, while some ranks have not been assigned learning outcomes. This situation is due to the fact that each learning outcomes has been described by a variable whom was assigned a value from one to eight according to rank target, so it has been done a reporting of each result of the eight ranks (which is presented in the charts).

If we want to establish the correct hierarchical value we must take into account the percentage value. For a fair distribution we consider absolutely necessary to reorder the learning outcomes compared to obtained percentage value, in such as: the first rank - capacity to formulate judgments (43, 3%); the second rank – values, attitudes skills (30, 5%); the third rank - capacity to explain and to interpret (29, 6%); the fourth rank – theoretical knowledge (27, 4%); the fifth rank – skills (25, 9%); the sixth rank – investigation capacity and scientific exploration capacity (25,3%); the seventh rank – original approaches, new ideas (23,2%); the eighth rank –capacity to solve problems (21,6%) (Figure 2).

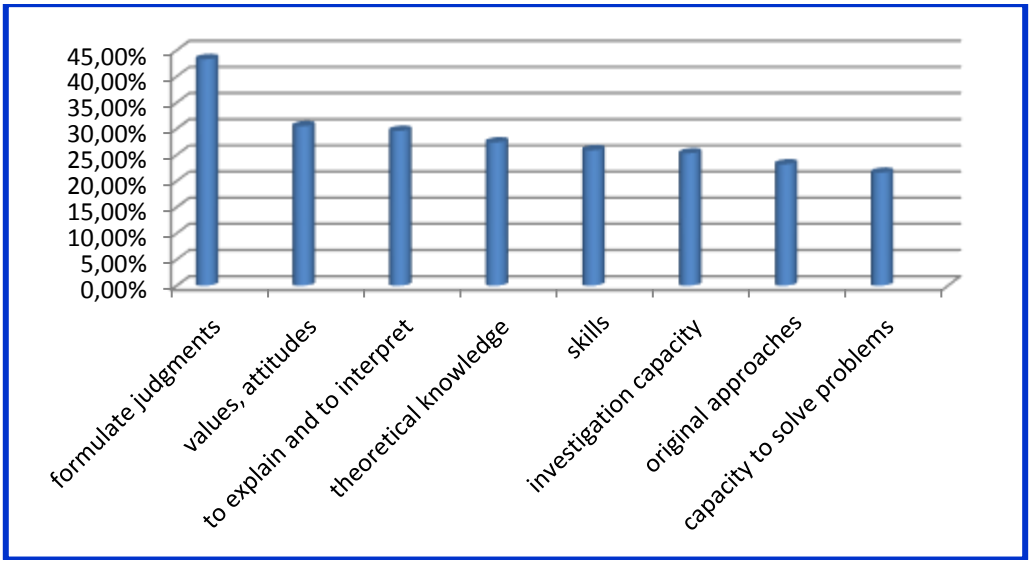

Figure 2. **The hierarchy representation criteria for assessing learning outcomes in response to evaluative practice in interactive web environment**

It is necessary to know the nature of the achievements that we want to assess, the learning outcomes to which we plan the assessment procedures, because only reporting ourselves to all these aspects we could choose the assessment techniques that fit properly.

If it is a priority for us to assess the theoretical knowledge, it is appropriate to select traditional evaluation methods and techniques that requires the individual participation of pupils. If our assessment is targeting ability to formulate judgments, then the most suitable assessment techniques are those of communication and cooperation in web environment. All these require establishing a correlation between traditional and cooperation methods involved in blended learning activity.

We remark the visible difference between learning are outcomes concerned by the current evaluative practice and their ranking expressed by the teachers' opinion specific to assessment and cooperative learning in web environment and this situation demonstrate the need for changes in school practice evaluation.

Discussions

The evaluation methods and techniques and cooperative learning requires new types of methodological thinking, learning programming tasks and especially an assessment and a continuous and precise tracking of the actions, roles and achievements of each pupil and group.

The teacher's role is different from the traditional one, focused on front teaching and individual activities of students. The teacher's role is less visible and more associated with thorough planning of learning tasks, especially if we take into consideration that every pupil in the class will have a role to fulfill in the learning process and in its related tasks.

This means that the learning objectives and tasks and blended learning must be formulated, so that they cannot be fulfilled without the active involvement of all pupils in web learning environment.

If we want that all the activities to be appropriately allocated to pupils, the teacher should know each student well.

The teacher should know the potential, motivations and other aspects of each pupil if he wants to form effective and cooperative groups.

In cooperative learning, the teacher creates proper conditions, so that the cooperative activities to be more constructive and productive than those based on competition.

Secondly, learning process must be planned so that to provide sufficient possibilities for face-to-face interaction in the virtual web environment.

Thirdly, all pupils must become aware of individual responsibility and collective responsibility necessary to achieve the group's objectives.

Finally, work skills in small groups and social skills should be practiced and used continuously.

School assessment as a result of learning based on cooperation can be achieved through interactive activities that promote cooperation and communication relations and achieving individual and groups performances; it also involves the use of modern techniques and methods of assessment that may cause constructive involvement of students in the educational act.

The modern techniques and methods of assessment in the virtual web environment may identify the student's personal mental exploration, the essence of reality and representations.

I have also focused on internal processes in cognition, the cognitive capabilities and skills, methodological structuring and reflection on the multiplicity of interpretations due to the performance of some activities, such as: posts, comments, texts, images, audio and video files that can be shared and updated, messenger, tele-video conferencing, debate rooms, forums, emails.

Conclusions

In this study I've presented the issue of assessment and learning through collaborative web environment. I've identified many changes involved in switching its assessment from traditional, individual assessment to the modern online communication and collaboration.

So, I've referred to programming tasks of learning and individual assessment with those of the collaborative, identifying the actions of assessment process in the context of collaborative web environment, developing the abilities of using communication and interactive learning, providing the reflexive activities and regular feedback.

In this researching project, I have brought an important contribution by analyzing streamline collaborative assessment by using weblogs and improving teaching practice regarding their positive effects in assessing students' competences to the detriment of traditional, individual assessment.

This researching had the following limits: deficit collaboration of some teachers, the uncertain answers of some teachers in the sample to the open questions from the focus group; the open answers of teachers in the applied interview qualitative analysis.

As prospects for the development research, we can identify: expanding investigations on a larger sample of teachers and its rigorous satisfaction; analysis of several techniques and methods of communication in technological environment; development of some training courses of teachers in pre-primary and primary education in order to develop their abilities to integrate information technology in teaching, learning and assessment.

Interactive assessment in web communication and cooperation, implies the existence of a partnership between educational agents, which is based on collaboration and negotiation processes and which targeting the empowering trainee and mobilization of its initiatives in evaluation and learning processes.

The main purposes of the interactive assessment are: to stimulate self-

evaluation capacity of the subject involved in this process, of its awareness required and to increase the self confidence of the trainee.

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THE IMPACT OF THE REFERENTIAL ON THE USED LANGUAGE IN THE REPORTS OF THE ASSESSMENT LEARNING RESULTS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION PUPILS

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Abstract

In literature of specialty there are few studies addressed to the modalities of carrying out the assessment reports. This study presents on scientific level the impact of the referentialon the used language in the assessment reports.

Through research project we proposed as objectives: to study the language used by teachers in primary education when filling in the reports of assessment pupils results based on the evaluative referent; the understanding of the importance of pupils learning activity as a result of the analysis of drafting style of the assessment reports; identifying the role of prior learning observationin projecting development programs for primary school pupils learning.

The basic method of our study was the analyze of school documents. Thus, we have reviewed several reports of assessment of pupils results, referring to the used language, to the style adopted by the assessor according to the referent's report. The results of the research have identified four main directions, which have a major role in describing the prior learning: the referential of the assessment report, pupils, the assessor and the administrators – the empowered institutions to organize the assessments. Each of these directions presents several subdomains debated in the initiated study.

The obtained results are beneficial to the responsible institutions for school assessment, but also to the assessor teachers, to improve the evaluative practices.

The research also identifies the main areas of development that would present a real support for the efficacity of the achievement methods of the assessment report.

Keywords: impact, referential, the language and the style of writing of he report, assessment report, prior learning assessment.

Introduction

Currently, the importance of the rethinking of the assessment process from the perspective of reflection upon pupils' school results is emphasized more and more. Thus, a change of paradigm in assessment is discussed, moving from measuring the pupils' results to a real assessment (Stoica 2001).

If a measurement is expressed in marks, grades, an appreciation is expressed in words. According to this belief, in the Romanian education system there have been developed working tools that favour the qualitative assessment

rather than quantitative assessment: for the eighth grade - grading criteria, and for primary school - performance descriptors:

"If the previous techniques, corresponding to other assessing paradigms, were centered on "DIY (do – it - yourself)", on the "Technique of goals operationalization", the pedagogy of competence promotes the "Technique of qualitative description" of the learning process and product" (Manolescu 2015).

For the purpose of modern evaluation, the assessment represents a location in the sphere of communication that is finalized and concreted through a speech that offers an argument in response to a question assigned to a value. "The assessment is an act of reading" of an observable reality (Hadji 1989).

Referring to the levels of schooling, we find that in the primary school the referential is well-defined and designed by the presence of performance descriptors, but also by the educational documents that have changed the assessing paradigm for primary school, as a result of the actions taken in 1998/1999.

"The primary schooling is in a privileged position compared to other levels of education. At this level a referential has been elaborated and it is operational and according to this one there is organized both the learning activity and the evaluation one" (Manolescu 2015).

In this regard, there are important both the developed National Curriculum and the performance descriptors that have a role in organizing the learning-assessment process based on skills, thus achieving a shift to an appreciative approach to the detriment of measurement in the assessing act (Stoica 2003).

The appreciative approach is achieved by reference to a "referential". It can be *"an ensemble of elements connected within a system and having landmark status"* (Dragulanescu, et al 2014).

The referential helps us understand the factors according to which a pupil is assessed or his school result is appreciated, having the role to diagnose and to decide the ameliorative measures that have to be taken. Thus, the assessment experts or the specialized institutions develop referential feedback on the pupils' results. These represent criteria or statements which describe pupils' performance, according to which the assessors are issuing judgments. These values represent performance classes, efficiency levels or other descriptive structures (Lisievici 2002).

The studies regarding the results achieved by pupils in National Evaluation Exams provide a consistent base of information about pupils' school performance needed to work out a methodology for the design, implementation and analysis of educational assessment.

The Education Law 01/2011 provides information about the development ways of the National Evaluation at the end of the preschool, second and fourth grades.

"At the end of the preschool grade, based on a methodology developed by

the Ministry of Education and Research of Youth and Sports, the teacher in charge writes an assessing report of the physical, socio-emotional, cognitive, language and communication development, as well as the development of learning capacities and attitudes "(National Education Law 2011).

"At the end of class II, each school organizes and conducts the evaluation of the basic skills: writing - reading and mathematics, based on a methodology developed by the Ministry of Education and Research of Youth and Sports. The assessment results and the individualized plans are communicated to the parents and are placed as documents in the pupil's educational portfolio." (National Education Law 2011).

"At the end of class IV, Ministry of Education and Research of Youth and Sports carries out, by samples, a national assessment of basic skills acquired in the primary school, modeled after international tests for diagnosis of the education system at the primary level." (The National Education Law 2011).

Currently, the evaluation was subject to a process of modernization, because it no longer has a summative character, but a formative one; it is performed at the end of an educational cycle and aims to design an individualized learning plan which captures the improvement, adjustment and betterment of pupils' learning process.

The evaluation no longer has the role of ranking pupils. Thus, the language used in the Assessing Report will not include comparative assessments between pupils on the level of knowledge assimilation. The assessing teachers will refer to knowledge, as well as to skills and abilities, setting the fulfillment of each standard needed to promote the following classes.

Meeting these standards is determined by the results obtained by pupils at the initial evaluations. These results help teachers design their teaching approach.

In the research project, we proposed as objectives:

1. Studying the language used by primary education teachers in completion of the assessment reports of pupils' performance based on the evaluative referent.
2. The understanding of the importance of pupils' learning activity as a result of analyzing the drafting style used in the assessing reports.
3. Identifying the role of observation of prior learning in designing of development programs for primary school pupils' learning.

We have identified as general hypothesis of the research project:

If there is analyzed the writing style of the assessing reports, then the teachers can better understand pupils' learning activity and realize the role of observation of prior learning in the designing of development programs for primary school pupils' learning.

From this general hypothesis derive the following specific hypotheses:

1. If the general criteria by which assessing teachers describe pupils' learning outcomes in the assessment reports are identified, then we

can better understand the learning activity of pupils in primary education.

2. If the main ways of describing the prior learning are analyzed, then designing steps of development programs for primary school pupils' learning can be initiated.

The methodology

The Sample

The research batch was represented by 195 preschool pupils, 150 of second grade and 188 of fourth grade. Batch members come from 5 urban schools and 3 rural schools.

Methods

The method used was the analysis of school documents, investigating the language in the assessment reports according to the evaluative referential. There have been analyzed 195 assessing reports of preschool pupils' activities, 150 reports of pupils from second grade and 188 reports of pupils from the fourth grade.

There were also analyzed 133 assessing reports at the Dolj county level and 66 reports from school units, reports that have been submitted within the methodological committees.

Results of the research

Textually analyzing assessing-teachers' remarks, we have identified three general criteria by which they describe pupils' learning process: report recipients, describing pupils' learning process and the assessment language.

Thus, we will refer to each of these themes.

The recipients of the assessment report

Although not a criterion specified in the assessing methodology, however, teachers adopt different writing styles adapted to those the assessment report is intended for. The referential of the assessment report influences the writing styles of the evaluative assessments. There were identified three types of people targeted by the report: pupils, assessing teachers and test administrators.

The pupils

Some assessors consider that the pupil's individual study, along with his class participation, influence the responses' speed and integration in the lesson's development. Often, we noticed that when the assessment reports are addressed to the pupils, the assessor identifies learning's positive aspects, which he highlights and summarizes the critical ones.

For example, an assessor found that "The pupil not only records the data in tables, he presents ways to correlate them and of creative use." Also, assessments about the successful assimilation of knowledge at an advanced level as a result of motivation and self-determination for learning are made.

Some comments have been developed to help the pupil to progress in learning. For example, another assessor explains how the pupil will be involved in learning, objectively and promptly, to avoid falling behind. This type of comment is a support for both pupil and teacher. Thus, the pupil learns how to study, and the teacher understands the pupil's process of previous learning, which has focused less on its practical actions in order to assimilate knowledge and skills.

The assessing teachers

Some reports were made frequently using specialty terms, as though they were addressed to assessment experts. To understand the terminology and the used expressions, the reader requires an advanced level of training in the theory and the methodology of the assessment. In most cases, this mode of expression has offered to the teachers reading the report the guarantee that the author is an expert in assessment content and has identified whether learning has occurred.

Many assessors specify whether the assessment targets were met reporting every objective to the pupil. This assessor's report can come in various forms, most often a list of objectives is developed that informs the reader whether the objectives have been achieved or not, in the learning process.

The test administrators

The reports addressed to test administrators showed pupils' learning results as providing proof elements in order to meet the educational policy. There are presented both data on assessment test results and an analysis of the pupil's entire educational endeavor highlighting the clear progress that occurred as a result of compliance to educational directives.

These references emphasize to the reader the idea that there was a systematic and complex process that supported the pupil's learning.

Pupils learning description

Examining the ways in which the assessors have written about assessment, we found three main themes: learning as experience, learning in different contexts and learning in different areas.

Is learning experience?

A major premise of prior learning assessment is that credit is given for learning and not for experience (Fiddler, Marienau and Whitaker 2006). Experience in itself does not give rise to learning, but how experience affects the results and applies these insights that provide the foundation for learning (Keeton, Sheckley and Griggs 2002).

The evaluators' assessments showed that pupils' learning modalities are not influenced by their experience. Thus, it was shown that this concept is much more complex than experience-based learning. In some cases, learning was not separated from the pupil's experience: "Outcomes of learning are determined by the experience of learning and the practical one." meaning experiences are the gateways towards learning. These types of assessments do not make a clear distinction between experience and knowledge acquired, and the learning involves experiences.

In other cases, the learning was identified with the experience, as if learning can not be achieved without experience. Most often, in this respect, learning is more procedural, focusing on the practical work of the pupil. Some types of learning are in an interdependent relationship with experience, learning description is impossible to create without describing the experience. For example, to attain performances also in the study of arts, the pupil's portfolio includes his experiences, describes the expectations and demonstrates the learning. In these cases, the assessment language uses an experimental terminology (demonstrated, shown, for example) as captures of the relationship between learning and the experiences context.

Knowledge areas (Keeton, Sheckley, Griggs 2002) can provide different ways to describe learning. For example, declarative knowledge would require an assessment of vocabulary, theories and principles of a topic. In contrast, the procedural knowledge needs a different type of assessment.

Learning in different contexts

In learning's description there have been identified different styles in accordance with the context in which the learning was acquired. The description differs whether learning is based on performance or personal experience.

The description of performance-based learning uses proceedings and methods for learning description. For example: "The learning style is based on a thorough demonstration of the working stages, which pupils then show "; in Fine Arts expressions such as, "presents interest for the look of the paper"; "approaching the issues of general interest" describes a performance-based learning. Thus, language and culture of the performance determines the ways in which assessors wrote the evaluation report.

Assessors' writing about pupils' experience-based learning focuses on developing their skills. Often, assessors list the tasks they had to fulfill and the skills attained by them. Example of such supplements: "The pupil understood the achievement stages of the project, respecting the need for training, allocation of tasks within the working group, respected the working timeframe and properly managed the material resources."

The contents are different depending on how the pupil acquired learning. Each is a narrative style based on how assessors described the proceeding of learning acquiring. Choosing the vocabulary, details, pictures and other matters

are indications of the assessment reports based on different learning contexts. The reader of these reports can obtain information about the context in which the learning took place.

Learning reported to different areas

Assessors writing styles change depending on the pupils' learning area. There have been identified many area-specific words, but also their content.

Thus, we can say that the assessment styles belong to the learning area. For example, at Romanian language and literature "The awareness of the poetic rhythm conducts to the enrichment of pupils' imagination and language expressiveness". At Civic Education an assessor finds out that "The pupil has demonstrated an advanced understanding of emotions that underlie the debate. These emotions are represented by the following behaviors..... ". The emotions that the pupil has lived are described from different perspectives and how morality interacts with legal prospects and various social values.

In this case, words and phrases are representative of a particular area.

The assessment language

We identified different styles of vocabulary and expression of the assessors. Differences in expression between reviewers were determined by the specific used terminology. Many evaluators have used addressing terminology for a particular group, which is not understood by the general public. They used terms belonging to their own culture, to a specific discipline, to the educational and institutional area.

Discussions

The results of this study are of particular importance for practice. The existence of the assessment reports required by the education institutions at county and national level, in addition to the criteria assessments, require the completion of an analysis of progress or regress in learning. The assessments are narrative structured, but there are styles and attitudes of the assessors that influence the evaluative approach.

Even if there is not an assessment report for each class, as required by the education system, evaluative assessments are written by teachers after applying summative evaluation tests. These reports appreciate the learning results obtained by pupils, but also adopt a specialized language to assess as fair as possible pupils' learning performance. The assessors have certain considerations, attitudes towards pupils' learning, determining the difference in learning.

People targeted by the assessment report are very important. The purpose of the evaluation report is primarily to define the public it is addressed to.

For example, when the report was addressed to pupils and parents, it had a qualitative form. When the report was addressed to colleagues from the methodical commission the learning process was justified, supported by

examples. When the report was addressed to the school inspectorate, there have been made references in general terms to emphasize that the assessment took place.

The purpose of the report must clearly define who the audience is. If it is part of the learning process of the pupil, then the pupil is the audience. If it is addressed to colleagues, to the methodical commission, then the goal is to justify pupils learning in relation to the educational policies. If it is addressed to an institution (school or school inspectorate), then it must respect certain rules of report forming.

The language used by assessors influenced the understanding of pupils' learning activity. The assessment also determined different aspects: from identifying pupils' learning difficulties, to the development of the assessors' skills, to the improvement of the assessment criteria contained in the report.

A significant difference in how the assessors registered pupils' learning was the expression style used in observation. In some reports the pupil is the observer or is using his view to justify the learning action.

In contrast, some assessors imprint a personal form to the way the assessment is done, expressing their views. Some of the comments focused on pupil's learning, others have referred to the contextual circumstances that led to learning.

The reports providing the most complex information are those combining the styles of writing, in which the observations are combined with the analysis of pupils' learning results.

When reports were addressed to institutional authority, the assessors tried to justify the pupils' results and learning acquisitions, to prove a higher level of training. In this case, there are some reports that were completed efficiently when assessors provided information about pupils' learning, illustrating in this way their professional skills level.

If the purpose of the report is to describe pupil learning, then the evaluator's style to assess pupil learning provides the referent a picture of pupil learning with reference to the types of learning and the knowledge and skills he achieved.

The referent of the evaluation report is the one that shapes the style of writing the assessment report. Thus, there may be several description of pupil learning. For example, information which formed the basis for building learning description may be different from those that prompted the development of some procedural structures. Understanding how learning is described in the assessment report, we can identify the critical points that affect pupil learning.

Conclusion

The language styles used in the writing of the reports influenced the understanding of pupils' learning and the requirements of institutional authorities.

It is the culture that impacts the report writing style. The culture of the study discipline, institution, the environment in which the pupil has acquired the knowledge has an impact on the style used in the description of learning. Expressions used to describe learning are based on the assessor's culture. There have been identified strategic or procedural differences in the description of the learning types.

The assessor's role is to drive the pupil's learning toward his forming necessity, to design a development program that will assist in the observation of learning within a given context. It is necessary for teachers to insist on prior learning assessment of pupils. Based on these results, the assessors reorganize the pupil's learning activity by referring to the situational context.

Open issues

The present study has outlined some questions that further research may be based upon: What are the best practices for writing assessment reports about pupils' learning and observations' recording? How can language be effectively used to describe pupils' learning as best as possible? How can the level of knowledge of evaluated pupils be appreciated as correctly as possible and in the situation of the appliance of the complementary methods in which assessors analyze the pupils' documents: portfolios, projects, etc.?

Based on the research performed we outline two open issues:

1. Identification of the means by which, based on this study, we can improve the writing of the assessment report of pupils' achievements.
2. The development of research initiated by applying questionnaires to the assessors, but also by analyzing the assessment reports that correspond to other schooling levels.

Thus, the future research studies will help us to better understand pupils' learning assessing practices and processes that the evaluators conduct to assess their learning.

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THE USE OF NEW INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES BY STUDENTS OF PRIMARY AND PRESCHOOL PEDAGOGY SPECIALIZATION FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF CRAIOVA

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Abstract

The idea of this paper started from the study of virtual learning communities (VLCs), in the framework of our postdoctoral research and particularly their impact on the professional identity development, in the field of primary education. The analysis of NICT is essential for providing computer-assisted instruction and evaluation (CBI & CBE), especially in the context of knowledge society in which universities are considered as 'engines of knowledge'. The impact of the new information and communication technologies (NICT) in everyday life and in school is considerable and permanently generates new ways of learning, communication and managing information. We aimed in this paper to identify in which subjects from the curriculum our students will be interested to participate in, particularly those concerning CBI and CBE related activities. The results revealed students' curricular preferences on different levels (CBI – interest and utility and CBE – interest and utility) and could contribute to a strategy that better aligns students' needs and aspirations with academic and job market requirements.

Keywords: new information and communication technologies, computer-based instruction, computer-based evaluation, curriculum preference, curriculum feedback

1. Introduction

The curriculum feedback might be narrowly defined as a response / reaction of learners in relation to a sequence of the curriculum in a certain period. This reaction or response of learners towards the curriculum involves measuring the effectiveness of the curriculum on the one hand, and on the other hand requires probing the interests and preferences of learners and how they harmonize with the curricular experience itself. In a larger sense, the feedback curricular concerns response / reaction of other partners involved in the educational process, such as parents, educational institutions, non-formal, or other important actors in the community (at local, regional, national level) and by extension to all persons who have completed the curriculum sequence that we want to investigate. Curricular feedback investigation in this aspect is more complex and takes the

form of a pedagogical survey, taking account of the parameters mentioned above, and others (Strungă, 2009).

First, we note that the effectiveness of the curriculum that we mentioned earlier is not necessarily the effectiveness of the curriculum as it is assessed by experts in education science or from the institutions of monitoring and research at national and international level (National Education Ministry and Scientific Research, UNESCO or Gallup for example), but rather the reflection of the experience of learners in relation to a curriculum sequence. We are referring to 'curriculum preferences' as a specific part of the larger category of curriculum feedback i.e. evaluating the curriculum's efficiency (and implementing optimizations) on one hand and on the other hand analyzing learners' interests and preferences. At a concrete level studying curriculum preferences of students means to study the multiple aspects of curriculum as an educational experience, in a broader definition of terms, as it is perceived by the learner following various parameters like: what are the subjects preferred by the students; the duration of the courses; teaching, learning and evaluation methods preferred by the students; the type of educational activities preferred by the students; certification systems and recognizing competences in the context of qualifications, number of transferable credits; the aim of the educational program; Preferred location and time for education activities; education providers; financial resources and the potential to invest in educational activities (Strungă, 2009).

2. Method

Our methodological approach for this study was threefold: first, the analysis of the scientific literature in the field of NICT use in education as basis for CBI & CBE, especially virtual learning communities used for professional identity development; this analysis was done using EBSCO Academic Premiere and ERIC databases; second, testing the Schoology platform (www.schoology.com) in order to explore the potential of new CBI & CBE tools with 60 students from preschool and primary pedagogy specialization from the University of Craiova, Faculty of Letters, Department of Communication, Journalism and Education Sciences, during the first semester of the university year 2015-2016; third, using the Pedagogical Survey Method, Questionnaire Technique; Instrument: Students' Digital Curriculum Preferences Inventory (SDCPI), based on previous studies.

Since our study aims to optimize the digital curriculum for Primary and Preschool Pedagogy specialization, we used the SDCPI questionnaire on a sample of undergraduate students enrolled in the study program organized by University of Craiova (at both Craiova) - 123 students, of which participated in the investigation a total of 71 subjects, 35 from the first year and 36 from the second year. Consequently, the survey's results are representative to students of Primary and Preschool Pedagogy specialization from the University of Craiova. The average age of subjects participating in research was 25 years, 97% of the

subjects were female and 3% male, 61% resided in urban areas and 39% in rural areas.

The survey was carried out between January and May 2016 with the permission of University of Craiova's Rectorate. We included in this study students from the first and second year of their undergraduate training (primary and preschool specialization) using systematic random sampling. The SDCPI Questionnaire was applied during the seminar activities for the subject "Methodology of Educational Research" and "Theory and Methodology of Curriculum". The research instrument that we used included 10 items and was entitled "Students' Digital Curriculum Preferences Inventory" (SDCPI). The first item (I1) included a list with all the subjects from the preschool and primary education specialization's curriculum and the students were asked to specify how useful and interesting would be to include CBIE for each discipline. All the answers from the first two items were codified on a Likert scale from 1-5 (1 - not useful at all and 5 – very useful, respectively 1 - not interesting at all and 5 – very interesting). The following items (I2 and I3) asked students what subjects they think should be added or removed from the curriculum. Items I4, I5 and I6 included questions regarding the access to various electronic devices (smartphones, laptops, tablet computers, smart TV, desktop), how useful these devices are for their professional development and how much they use them. The last items (I7, I8, I9 and I10) gathered factual data concerning the year of study, age, gender, family and residence. Overall, the questionnaire included 8 closed questions (I1, I2, I5-I10) and 2 open questions (I3, I4) and was based on previous studies in the field of curriculum preferences (Strungă & Bunăiașu, 2013).

We pretested the research instrument at several seminars: "Methodology of Educational Research" and „Theory and methodology of curriculum" and students' observations were included in the second version. The research instrument was also reviewed by five other colleagues from the Department of Communication, Journalism and Education Sciences and their observations were added in the final version of the questionnaire. Before using the questionnaire, we conducted a reliability test in IBM SPSS 24 for SDCPI, and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was equal to .993.

The aims of our study were the following: to identify the current digital curricular preferences which could be the basis of a needs analysis profile for our specialization; to make use of current digital infrastructure in order to improve the digital curriculum; to recommend new ways for using both CBI & CBE in our classes; to analyze a case-study in which NICTs (particularly VLCs) can be integrated in a larger knowledge management model in order to develop students' professional identity. We also elaborated the following hypothetic statement: if we apply the SDCPI, we will be able to identify students' curricular preferences, at both CBI and CBE level.

3. Results and conclusions

The subjects students considered could include CBI and CBE activities are the following: Psychopedagogy of Game (CBI interest mean = 4.1, CBI utility mean = 4.1), Information and Communication Technologies (CBI utility mean = 4, CBI interest mean = 4), Theory and Methodology of Curriculum (CBI utility mean = 4, CBI interest mean = 3.9), Planning and Implementation of Educational Projects (CBI utility mean = 3.9, CBI interest mean = 3.8), Educational Management (CBI interest mean = 3.8) and Inclusive Education for Children with Special Educational Needs (CBI interest mean = 3.8). On the other side of the preferences spectrum, the disciplines students considered are not appropriate for CBI and CBE activities are the following: Physical Education (EAC utility mean = 2.2, EAC interest mean = 2.2, IAC interest mean = 2.3, IAC utility mean = 2.3), Philosophy of Education (EAC utility mean = 2.4, EAC interest mean = 2.4), Intercultural education (EAC utility mean = 2.5, EAC interest mean = 2.5), Sociology of Education (EAC interest mean = 2.6), Didactics of Mathematics (EAC interest mean = 2.6). A considerable amount of evidence (Strungă, 2015) suggests that using new information and communication technologies, particularly virtual learning communities have significant advantages for the development of students' competences. Our study highlights the fact we can use SDCPI to identify students' preferences for educational activities including CBI and CBE activities. The answers students provided can be a valuable map for curriculum designers and professors, guiding in the same time decisions at university, faculty or department level. New virtual learning communities such as Edmodo and Schoology can have a tremendous impact on students' performance, by increasing their professional social capital though these networks.

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COMPETENCE *LEARNING TO LEARN* IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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Abstract

Romanian defining competence in curriculum documents highlights the emphasis on structural elements of competence which are required to be developed/ and subsequently evaluated by specific educational approaches. Although some of these authorities have tried to be operationalized in the disciplines of education, either theoretical models of operational or practical competence learning to learn they are not identified.

The competence of learning to learn is an average over the period of schooling due to the way of structuring the curriculum, specific predominant in organizing and designing traditional teaching activities or limits imposed by the specific assessment at primary education.

In this paper we propose to identify and analyze ways of operationalization and implementation of competence "learning to learn" from the educational activities. These are distinct and relate to the drafting of the educational approach on how to translate scientific content and organization, how the organization and management of student learning activity.

Conclusions of this paper highlights the formative value of training/ learning to learn competence development. Competence "learning to learn" will allow mobilizing the necessary resources to adapt to unforeseen situations.

A number of factors can be identified: a) dealing with new situations; b) the level of autonomy and responsibility; c) the terms of a possible takeover of initiative.

Key-words:transversal competences, competence *learning to learn*, learning by doing

THEORETHICAL FRAMEWORK

The literature review identified several contemporary approaches to learning, including student-centered educational paradigm; it places the student at the center of the educational process. Many authors (Bocos 2002, Ionescu 2003, Bocos 2013) recognize the increased positive valences of active and interactive learning, in that the student is in the spotlight, active pedagogy adheres to the principle of adapting the school to the student's needs, promotes a pedagogy of diversity, of differentiation, individualization and personalization.

The implementation skills paradigm involved radical changes in curricula,

didactics, evaluation and even in the teaching profession, requiring a holistic approach to education which needs to exceed restrictive traditional analysis. (Perrenoud 1998 in Tudor 2015).

Competence-based learning is built on a system of teaching and learning that develops autonomy and ability to teach students to learn. Students become aware of the learning process, and thereby promoting independent and self-regulated learning and an active engagement in learning and improving personal and professional skills.

The existence of many concepts that define educational aims in Romanian educational theory and practice led to the need to argue the necessity to introduce skills as finalities of the educational activity and to identify patterns of their training in school.

STUDENT CENTERED INSTRUCTIVE – EDUCATIONAL APPROACH

Centering on the student is a fundamental attribute of educational paradigms that structure their steps depending on certain characteristics of the student-process relation and/or of the student/contents relation, as opposed to the traditional teacher-centered paradigms. We derive from the specialized literature the following general characteristics:

- active participation of students in building up their own knowledge;
- students build up knowledge based upon their own knowledge and skills;
- they understand expectations and are encouraged to use progress self-evaluations;
- they work in collaboration;
- they decide on the componence of groups and working methods;
- the students monitor themselves their own learning course, in order to understand how knowledge builds up and to develop learning strategies;
- students have an intrinsic motivation for reaching the goals they have set;
- activity represents a true learning process;
- learning is an active search for the meaning;
- teachers acknowledge the existence of different learning styles;
- teachers help students to surpass difficulties, by formulating questions and orienting them to the right solution.

EDUCATIONAL COMPETENCE - CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

The term competence was defined by Rychen and Salganik (2003) as "the ability to successfully satisfy complex requirements in a particular context, by mobilizing psychosocial prerequisites including cognitive and non-cognitive issues and as ,,internal mental structures, within the meaning of skills, resources

and provisions embedded in person, in interaction with a task or a specific requirement of the real world." (Hoskins, Crick 2008)

The approach on education in terms of centered skills training, envisages an expanded analysis field of training and its essential details are (Pride, Ardelean 2014):

- increased following up the achievement of the aims assumed at the end of the school year or at the end of compulsory education
- granting a new meaning to learning,
- the ratio between skills and curriculum content
- disciplinary and trans-disciplinary dimensions of training
- disciplinary and trans-disciplinary learning activities
- certification of training by multiplying ways of assessing skills.

Competence defining in Romanian curriculum documents highlights the emphasis on structural elements of competence which require to be built/ developed and after evaluated by specific educational approaches.

- "(...) a set of knowledge, skills and abilities, organized to solve a task or set of tasks corresponding to social demands" (Biology curriculum);
- "(...) an integrated set/ system of knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes acquired by students through learning and mobilized in specific contexts of achievement, appropriate to the age and cognitive level of students to solve problems that they may face in real life" (Chemistry curriculum);
- "(...) a qualitative result of a contextualization, appropriate use of all purchases provided by education (knowledge, skills, attitudes) in order to actively solve everyday problems" (Geography curriculum);
- "(...) an integrated set of knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes acquired by student through learning and acting in specific contexts, adapted to student's age and cognitive level, to solve some problems it may face in real life " (Mathematics/ Physics curriculum);
- "(...) sets of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values formed and developed through learning, which can be mobilized to identify and solve problems specific to a particular area of human activity" (Informatics Curriculum).

Competences can be seen as more than just a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes: their successful application in practical situations. Schools should facilitate pupils' practical application of knowledge, skills and attitudes by placing them in situations that allow them to operate and interact, producing noticeable results. Competence is not a simple sum of knowledge, skills and attitudes; it is the proven ability to use them in a context achieving results. Contextualised experiences lived by students become important, in that not only the context itself can affect the quality of the competence, but also the subjective experiences of students, determined by context.

A derivation model of key competences in general/ specific skills of a curricular area was drafted by O. Mândruț and A. Ardelean, who built a matrix that syntheticaly gives the ratio between the eight areas of key-competence - and

the opportunities to fulfill them offered by a particular school subject ("theoretical") at the level of each class (Mândruț, Ardelean 2012).

From this matrix analysis, some conclusions can be drawn that can be suggested as guidelines in designing the curriculum in relation to the eight areas of competence:

- communicative competence has a high degree of satisfaction at all levels of schooling (from class IV to class XII);
- the competence of communication in foreign languages has a high degree of satisfaction at high school;
- mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology have a degree of satisfaction adequate to classes V or IX;
- digital competence has a high degree of satisfaction, starting with the V class;
- social competence and civic competences have a weak to medium degree of satisfaction over tuition classes;
- the ability to learn how to learn has an average level over the period of schooling;
- initiative and antreprenoriat competences have a small degree of satisfaction throughout the school period;
- sensitization and cultural awareness competences have an average degree over the period of schooling;

In the literature review, various combinations on the training and development of competence are used: learning ability, exercising ability (Voiculescu 2010), acquiring, training and developing competence. The phrase "competence development" is used when the competence is developed at some level when the student has the basic knowledge and skills and he reaches the levels: moderate, good, very good and superior. It is the competence development phase.

Competence is built on the different dimensions of a learning situation. In training and developing skills the emphasis is on personal development, behavior, capabilities and attitudes formation, on knowledge use, different authors identifying different levels or stages of development.

In defining the concept of *teaching competence* it is noted that it should be put in relation with the first *objective social side*, on the one hand, given the nature and complexity of tasks that make up the content of the various spheres of social activity and the different functions and *subjective-psychological plane* which is resultant of knowledge, skills, abilities and temperamental traits characteristic which the individual has, in order to fulfill the social function that he is invested with. (Marcus 1999). Thus, the competence means "the ability to behave in a particular, in a social situation, in order to empirically prove effective, approved operating environment" (Rosencrantz, Biddler 1964, in Marcus 1999).

The same authors state that the variables that emphasize professional competence (and also specific to the profession of educator) are the reasons,

knowledge, feelings and emotions, but also experience, personality features, networking capabilities. It is noted that such a direct relationship between the concept of competence and proficiency, competence with a much wider sphere, referring to the results of the activity, and, in addition to the knowledge and ability to perform a task well, right." (Gherghinescu 1999)

COMPETENCE "LEARNING TO LEARN"

From the analysis of European documents, competence "learning to learn" is approached as a skill to organize and to persevere in learning activity, in the sense of being able to organize your own process, including the achievement of a good personal time management and of the information you work with, in the case of group work, but also on their own.

We identify three structural dimensions of competence of learning to learn: cognitive dimension, metacognitive dimension and emotional, motivational dimension combined with socio-cultural learning environment. Students with well-developed skills to manage their own learning are able to establish appropriate learning goals, to use their knowledge and skills in order to manage their own learning and select appropriate strategies due to the task.

The competence of learning to learn is an integrated set of knowledge, skills, attitudes developed in a particular context in a reflective and strategic manner which includes cognitive, metacognitive, non-cognitive resources to engage actively and interactively in learning situations and efficient handling of the workload. (Roegiers)

Competence "learning to learn" is a transdisciplinary competence, which implies (Mândruț, Ardelean 2012):

- the ability to persevere in learning, to organize own learning, including through effective management of time and information, both individually and in groups;
- awareness of process and own learning needs , identifying available opportunities and the ability to overcome obstacles in order to learn successfully;
- gaining, processing and assimilating new knowledge and skills as well as seeking and making use of guidance;
- engages learners to start on prior knowledge and life experiences, so they can use and apply knowledge and skills in a variety of contexts - at home, at work, in education and training.

Components of learning to learn competence are (Mândruț, Catană, Mândruț 2012):

a. Knowledge:

- skills, knowledge and qualifications required by certain activity or career
- knowing and understanding preferred learning strategies
- knowing and understanding the strengths and weaknesses on skills and personal qualifications

- the ability to seek opportunities for training and career and education
- counselling

b. Skills:

- acquiring basic literacy needed for further learning: reading, writing, numeracy and ICT
- accessing, processing and assimilating new knowledge and skills, to have an effective management of their own learning
- to persevere in learning
- to assign a time for autonomous learning, self-discipline proving

c. Attitudes**:**

- motivation and confidence to pursue and succeed at learning throughout life
- centered problem solving attitude to support their own learning process and the individual's ability to remove obstacles and manage change
- manifestation of the desire to exploit learning experiences

The competence of learning to learn is a key competence for lifelong learning (European Council and Parliament 2006) which refers to:

- organize their own learning through time management and information
- awareness of the learning process and needs
- identify opportunities and ability to overcome obstacles
- search and use counseling and guidance
- transfer of acquired knowledge and skills
- motivation and confidence are crucial

TEACHING APPROACH OF COMPETENCE "LEARNING TO LEARN" IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Assessing this competence is based on the assumption that "learning to learn" contains two dimensions: cognitive and affective. In 2008, the Centre for Research on Lifelong Learning (CRELL) published a revised framework for measuring the competence of learning to learn, which is now used (Hoskins, Fredriksson 2008) and it has been added a new dimension, metacognition.

The competence of learning requires the person to know and understand his preferred learning strategies, the strengths and weaknesses of his skills and qualifications, but also to be able to seek available training opportunities and training, advice and/ or assistance.

Learning skills follow some fundamental basic skills such as literacy, numeracy and ICT that are necessary for further learning. Building on these skills, the individual must be able to access, gain, process, assimilated new knowledge and skills. This requires an effective management of his learning, career and work patterns, and in particular the ability to persevere with learning, to concentrate for extended periods and to reflect critically on learning goals. Individuals must be able to devote time to learning through self-discipline and independently, but also must work collaboratively as part of the learning process,

to take advantage of the heterogeneous group and share what they learned. Individuals must be able to organize their own learning, evaluate their own work and be willing to seek advice, information and assistance, if necessary.

A positive attitude includes the motivation and confidence to pursue and succeed at learning activity throughout the life. Problem-solving attitude supports both the learning process, and the individual's ability to overcome obstacles and change. The desire to put into practice prior learning and curiosity to seek opportunities for learning, and to put learning into practice in a variety of contexts of life are essential elements of a positive attitude.

Being a transversal competence, learning to learn competence cannot be strictly attached to only some subjects in the pre-university curriculum. Thus, the learning to learn competence develops either through an approach of its own, based on learning techniques, methods and strategies of study, independent of traditional disciplines or by infusing in disciplinary or interdisciplinary approaches, it helps to develop other key skills and it is a the result of them .

The didactic approach of competence "learning to learn" from the school curriculum includes:

- knowledge: knowledge, skills and required qualifications (related to a job or career goals) knowing and understanding its own preferred learning strategies knowing and understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of skills and qualifications, ability to search education and training offers;
- skills: acquiring base literacy for further learning - reading, writing, numeracy and ICT skills, acquire and assimilate new knowledge and skills, have an effective management of their own learning, career and professional activity, persevere in learning, concentrate for extended periods of time, reflect critically on the object and purpose of learning, assign a time for autonomous learning, share purchases learning to organize their own learning, evaluate their own work, search advice, information and support;
- attitudes: motivation and confidence to pursue and succeed in lifelong learning, problem solving to support its own process of learning and the individual's ability to remove obstacles, manifestation of the desire to exploit learning experiences and life experiences, intense exploitation of opportunities for learning and apply procurement in various life situations.

The modalities for operationalization and implementation of competence "learning to learn" at the level of educational activities are distinct and they are related to the drafting of the educational approach, on how to translate and organize scientific content, to the organization and directing the student in learning.

Competence "learning to learn" will allow mobilizing the necessary resources to adapt to unforeseen situations. A number of factors can be identified:

- dealing with new situations;
- the level of autonomy and responsibility;
- the terms of a possible takeover of initiative.

The development of competence learning to learn (ISE 2009) implies increasing actions of student engagement in independent learning, in building the capacity to express personal meanings and create personal learning environments, accountability for planning and organizing their own learning, its conduct and evaluation.

In relation to the drafting of the educational approach, competence can be exploit by:

- using the debate method for clarifying ideas and to get opinions from students;
- capitalizing students proposals and continuously encourage them;
- presenting the objectives of the activity / lesson that students know the purpose and to realize the effort required to achieve them;
- comparisons between what aims and what actually performs the student to have a true and objective view of the learning action ;
- discussing learning objectives with students;
- identifying the strengths of the activity and their exploitation;
- identifying of obstacles, their analysis, proposal and application of methods to overcome them;
- encouraging students to overcome any obstacle in learning, stimulating students' learning effort, his progress in learning;

In relation to how the scientific content is transposed and organized, the competence can be exploited by:

- capitalizing previous content elements and identifying correlations with new content elements to foster continuity of knowledge assimilation;
- identifying and deepening essential content elements and transfer it in complex knowledge systems;
- stimulating the complex processes of thought, the focus will be on understanding, application, synthesis, argumentation of knowledge and its application in various fields of activity.

In relation to the organization and directing student learning activity, the competence can be capitalized by:

- presenting some learning methods and techniques that stimulates autonomy in learning;
- establishing, in agreement with the teacher, work objectives for each student;
- arguing the teacher 's expectations from the student that the student know and relate to them;
- using various evaluation techniques to stimulate students in their own and of the others skills objective knowledge.

Developing the learning to learn competence is highlighted in the curricula of educational disciplines:

- by specific competence in Mathematics: mathematical modeling of various problematic contexts, by integrating knowledge from different fields;

- in Science by specific competence: transfer and integration of specific knowledge and work methods of biology in new contexts;
- at History through specific skills: using appropriate principles and methods to access historic sources; using the resources that support lifelong learning;
- at Physical Education by specific competence: application of the specific rules system to the organization and of practicing physical education and sport and adoption of appropriate behavior in interpersonal relations and group, using specific techniques for self-assessment of their capacities and analyze their value, developing self programs to improve their physical development and driving ability;

Entering preparatory class involves the reorganization of competence concept by adapting to the students achievable levels and the selection of means and methods in accordance with the pursued goals. Ensuring the continuum between the three cycles and then connect to the following classes of VI class is a methodological requirement that guide all teaching -learning - evaluation strategies.

Evaluation indicators will be focused on students' capabilities: the way of involvement and building the interpretations and arguments, how the knowledge is transferred to other contexts, the appreciation of the group colleagues, effects on the cognitive, individual development, the level of metacognition etc. (Tudor 2016)

Through various educational activities, students realize the process and own learning needs; identify available opportunities and develop their ability to overcome obstacles; use discussion/ debate for clarification and to get opinions.

To develop these skills until the end of secondary education, the graduates should:

- demonstrate through action, readiness to learn throughout life;
- determine strategies and learning methods suitable for their own development;
- improving own learning style;
- determining priorities and learning objectives;
- demonstrate initiative, risk assessment and control learning obstacles;
- efficient use of learning outcomes and previous experience;
- use the suitable resources for the full development of individual potential, and the potential of others, from a holistic perspective;
- achieve an appropriate balance of personality intellectual, emotional and motivational components , reinforcing self-confidence and self-esteem, positive motivation and ability to properly use their capabilities, respect and appreciation of others capabilities;
- correctly identify their strengths and weaknesses, capitalizing strengths to surpass itself;
- elect and decide about health, diet, physical training and exercises;
- use and manage information correctly, critically, creatively and responsibly;

- correlate theoretical knowledge with practical activities, proving a positive attitude towards learning; harness the acquired skills in subsequent studies, at work, in public and private life.

CONCLUSION

In recent years nuanced debates were carried on competences as educational finalities and the ways in which they can be converted into relevant training actions (Rey 1996, Perrenoud 1998, Badea 2010, 2011, Manolescu 2011, Dulamă 2011)

Competence-based education involves a series of new dimensions such as: strengthening the overlooking of the way the assumed finalities are being done at the end of the school year or at the end of compulsory education, granting a new meaning to learning, certification of training results etc. for each of them, they are looking for models to operationalize skills and their methodological approach, adapted to current educational dimensions.

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SKILLS FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL TRAINING

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Abstract

In recent years, it has been noticed the trend, having almost become a rule, to engage students, even from an early age, starting with pre-school years, in various categories of non-formal and informal activities. The school aims to build learning experiences formally gained and ensures the development of skills discovered in the student.

The training profile involves a collaboration between formal and non-formal/ in-formal educational factors, the training directions having a transdisciplinary character; they are expressed through seven generic categories and are each customized by sets of capabilities, attitudes and values.

The profile of the future graduate training is validated and subsequently carried out in accordance with the proposed development directions at European level through the key-competences areas of the European Qualifications Framework.

At the intersection of these milestones are identified the following key-elements, fundamental for the personal and socio-professional development of the graduate: the communication, the problem solving, the operations specific to different areas of knowledge, the socialization and civic responsibility, lifelong learning, the creativity, the entrepreneurship.

Key-words: non-formal education, informal education, skills training

THEORETHICAL FRAMEWORK

Learning one set of skills at school, a vocational/ technical college or at university is no longer sufficient preparation to equip people with the knowledge and expertise they will require for the duration of their working lives.

A major way to combine learning that happens in informal, non-formal and formal contexts is through recognition pathways. That is, using the prior learning, individuals gain, through experience in work or in other daily activities (informal learning) or in work-based or community-based structured training programs (non-formal learning), a way to identify training or learning gaps that need to be addressed to acquire formal qualifications (formal learning).

The European documents highlight the need to strengthen the human capital and the employability by increasing the level of graduates skills; (http://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regdoc/?fuseaction=list&coteId=1&year=2008&p=5&language=ro.)

- the overall demand for competences will continue to increase in the future;

- are required European /national policies guaranteeing labor adaptability to the needs of employers;
- it is required the diversification of the continuous training modalities and learning throughout life;
- the identification of some coherent measures for solving over qualification /under qualification;
- it is essential the correct assessment of skills, not just quantitative, but especially qualitative.

The main skills associated to the changes in work content and which facilitate the adaptation and employability are: use of information technology competences, problem solving skills, resources and communication management skills, including communication in a foreign language. From the same perspective, it highlighted the importance of developing transversal competences and non-technical competences (soft competences), such as: teamwork, language skills and communication skills. These types of skills enable the potential employees flexibility and adaptability at work.

The contribution of non-formal education to the forming/ development of student competences aims two levels: skills as interactional process in various social contexts and student competences as prescribed curriculum elements. In school are formed the key-competences (in various disciplines), but this it's not the only way of training/ developing them, the role of non-formal and in-formal education being relevant and included in the lifelong education.

The school curriculum offers suggestions of ways of teaching approach of the skills in teaching and learning process: discussion on a given topic, how and where they learned about an author, a historic event, a geographical area, a scientific experiment etc.; account of their own formal or informal experiences of learning which are associated with new acquisitions (what they noted in a trip/ vacation in the mountains on the flora and fauna specific to this area, in what movies or books seen or read they learned something new about the topic addressed etc.); reflections on how they exploit new knowledge, skills, attitudes, internalized in their daily activities in formal education.

NON-FORMAL AND INFORMAL EDUCATION – AS COMPLEMENTARY DIMENSIONS

Non-formal education is a loosely defined term covering various structured learning situations, such as swimming sessions for toddlers, community-based sports programs and conference style seminars, which do not either have the level of curriculum, syllabus, accreditation and certification associated with 'formal learning', but have more structure than that associated with 'informal learning', which typically takes place naturally and spontaneously as part of other activities. This concept of formal learning being the socio-cultural accepted norm.

This learning was first challenged by Scribner and Cole in 1973 (Scribner, Cole 1973), who claimed that most things in life are better learnt through informal

processes, citing language learning as an example. Moreover, anthropologists noted that complex learning still takes place within indigenous communities that had no formal educational institutions. (Lave, Wenger1991).

Non-formal education can be defined as learning that is not provided by an education or training institution and typically does not lead to certification; as an intention from the learner's perspective' (European Commission 2001).

Because it differs from informal learning in terms of its targeted, intentional and planned nature, non-formal learning still requires structures such as defined learning sites, curricula, teachers and trainers.

Objectives of non-formal education are (Nwachukwu Prince Ololube; Daniel Elemchukwu Egbezor2012):

- provides functional literacy and continuing education for adults and youths who have not had the advantage of formal education or who did not complete their primary education;
- provide functional and remedial education for the young people who did not complete their secondary education;
- provide education to different categories of graduates to improve the basic knowledge and skills;
- provide in-service, on-the-job, vocational and professional training to different categories of workers and professionals to improve their skills;
- give adult citizens of different parts of the country necessary aesthetic, cultural and civic education for public enlightenment.

Non-formal education today should be seen as related to the concepts of recurrent and lifelong learning.

Fordham (1993) suggests four characteristics associated with non-formal education:

- relevance to the needs of disadvantaged groups;
- concern with specific categories of persons;
- a focus on clearly defined purposes;
- flexibility in organization and methods.

Completion of non-formal learning programs may initiate individuals into the next stage of a desired life path. In industry, non-formal learning (often delivered away from the actual job or in industry training rooms or spaces) may be used to induct new employees into the culture of the company, to develop the technical and inter-personal skills of experienced workers, and hone the skills of managers and supervisors. (Misko 2008)

Non-formal vocational education and training is provided by a wide range of organisations, including non-governamental organisations, church institutions, profit-making education and training providers, companies, and employer and employee organisations.

The courses on offer cover a broad range of skills and take many different forms, including distance study programmes, integrated training and coaching,

and classroom-based lessons at night school. Non-formal vocational education and training also involve a number of pitfalls.

Quality in particular is not always sufficiently high to generate real added value for learners, who sometimes lack reliable information to enable them to compare different offers. Employers are also very limited in their ability to assess the value of the education and training courses completed by applicants.

Against this backdrop, many countries are seeking to introduce recognition mechanisms for certifying skills acquired in a non-formal context**.** These mechanisms aim to make skills visible by having them identified externally on a standardised basis at the end of training programmes and courses.

Formal qualifications should make it easier for individuals to make the transition to the formal vocational education and training system or to higher-quality work. The most sustainable impact is achieved by including additional provision such as job placement, assistance for business start-ups and help for individuals in implementing what they have learned in their own company (Adam and Hiltmann 2013).

Informal education happens outside of the classroom, at home, in after-school programmes, community-based organisations, museums, and libraries. Informal education is the learning that goes on in daily life. Parents and other caregivers, for example, may show children how to prepare family food or tie their shoe laces.

This is informal education. Informal education can include the learning that comes from being involved in youth and/or community groups. Like friends or parents, these workers may respond to what is going on, but as professionals they are able to illicit special insights and ways of working (Nwachukwu Prince Ololube; Daniel ElemchukwuEgbezor 2012).

A renewed interest in informal workplace learning has been fuelled by a variety of changes in the way organisations have restructured and adapted to „shifting environments and … advances in … technology and global communication„ (Marsick 2006 in Misko 2008).

The aim of informal learning at the time is not to gain formal qualifications, it may be used to acquire formal qualifications in secondary, VET and higher education sectors. There are some cases, generally in the VET sector, where informal learning acquired throughout work and life in general has been recognised through formal recognition of prior learning (RPL) assessments to gain whole qualifications. (Misko 2008).

A radiograph of educational offers provided by the school environment and social environment highlights various non-formal and informal activities in which students can be integrated. Their selection depends on many factors: family financial possibilities to support these actions, skills and personal interests, age level, regional specifics etc. Some of these belong to the schools offers (*participation in cultural and sporting events* - performances, book launches, school competitions, school

visits, school trips, events in the library, cultural projects; *civic actions* - debates; *volunteering*; *free time actions* - trips, hiking, reading, cinema and theater, *professional and career development* a*ctions*-symposiums, practical activities, *activities for personal development* - best manner courses, modeling, sports activities, p*artnerships* - participation in school projects), others from the community institutions offers (creative workshops, competitions on specific topics, dance/ music/ acting/ languages/ musical instruments/ sports courses).

At national and European level in the manual Classification of learning activities, 2006, it is proposed a map of categories of activities that allow the formation of communication competences (The Institute of Education Sciences. The Laboratory Curriculum 2004):

1. Formal education

2. Non-formal education

2.1. Non-formal education programs

2.2. Courses: 2.2.1. Courses conducted by classroom training (including readings) 2.2.2. Combined courses theory - practice (including workshops) 2.2.3. Courses conducted through open and distance education 2.2.4. Private tutoring (private lessons)

2.3. Vocational conducted training

2.4. Random non-specific education

3. Informal education

3.1. Learning that is teach 3.1.1. Taught learning. Training /informal tutoring 3.1.2. Guided visits

3.2. Non-taught learning. 3.2.1 Self-learning 3.2.2. Group learning 3.2.3. Practice. 3.2.4 Non-guided visits

In the developing world, the author (Latchem, 2010) found that non-formal education included:

- literacy, numeracy and basic education for adults, out-of-school youth and school dropouts;
- youth group and social development;
- community mobilisation and development;
- gender issues;
- knowledge and skills development in crop science, animal husbandry, fishing, forestry, nutrition, water supply and sanitation, family planning, childcare, healthcare, hiv/ aids prevention, gender equity, public safety and justice, reconstruction and reconciliation, computing and environmental, ecological and conservation issues;
- small-scale business and local enterprise skills development;
- inclusive education for those with special needs who are currently excluded, enabling them to become valued, contributing members of their communities.
- information about democracy, human and civil rights and constitutional and voting systems.

The educational aims formulated in the school curriculum for the different levels of education are supported by formal, non-formal and in-formal education.

For primary education, educational aims, defined in terms of competences in the school curricula aim: training the child's personality, respecting his level of development; equipping the child with the knowledge, skills and attitudes that boost the creative and effective reporting on social and natural environment allowing further education.

For secondary education are taken into consideration: building the capacity to communicate effectively in real situations, using Romanian language, mother language, foreign languages and various specialty languages; training and developing the capacity to adapt and integrate into the community; formation of positive attitudes in relation with the social environment: tolerance, responsibility, solidarity, etc.; building capacities and motivations necessary for learning in the conditions of a changing society.

For high school education, the goals aim to: building the capacity to reflect on the world, to formulate and solve problems based on relating knowledge from different fields; value their own experiences, for an optimal vocational guidance for employment and/ or higher education; developing the capacity to actively integrate in different sociocultural groups: family, professional environment, friends etc.; development of essential functional skills for social success: communication, critical thinking, decision making, processing and contextual use of complex information; cultivation of the expressiveness and sensitivity in order to personal fulfillment and to promote a quality life; formation of moral autonomy.

Non-formal learning is perceived as being the opposite of the „formal" educational system, seen as institutionalized training, which represents compulsory education, variable as time period from one school system to another and that ends with a specific certification of acquired skills. At the systemic level, non-formal learning is the system of formal education institutions providing compulsory education in a country. (Tudor, 76 (2013) 821–826, page 822)

Examples of non-formal learning are training programs provided by social community institutions such as libraries, music schools, foreign language schools, community centers or other centers which organize training courses for various skills - musical, instrumental, dance, theatre, sports, painting, mimicry etc.

The contribution of non-formal education to the forming/ development of student competences aims two levels: skills as interactional process in various social contexts and student competences as prescribed curriculum elements. In school the key-competences are followed (in various disciplines), but this it's not the only way of training/ developing them, the role of non-formal and informal education being relevant and included in the lifelong education.

Developing the communication skills through non-formal activities (The Institute of Education Sciences 2004) develops language competences, creates

various opportunities for practicing languages, forming skills of search and information processing, developing nonverbal communication competences and for using of specialized languages (including in the online environment, in the public).

The definition of informal learning is not fully supported, although it is clearer than the idea of non-formal learning. For example, some people would describe distance learning through individual purchase of books and study manuals and their individual study at home as informal learning. (Albulescu, 2008)

Unlike formal and non-formal education, "informal learning" is not deliberately organized to ensure student's learning. The learner often does so unintentionally. However, "informal" learning is a very effective method of learning and probably the most common among adults. (Tudor, 76 (2013) 821–826, page 822)

Benefits of informal learning:

- gathering and collecting the desired knowledge is easier today owing to the exhaustive media and devices we have. Informal learning does not require any prior learning experiences or prerequisites;
- learning informally is more relaxing and less threatening for most people. With no exams or projects to complete within limited schedules, many learners commit to learning a new skill or a concept readily;
- in an informal setting, you will find willing to share more knowledge than ever! so if you have a group of experts in your organization, simply arrange an informal meeting and have them share their expertise;
- informal learning is close to natural learning. People tend to follow the pathway that best suits their individual needs.

SKILLS FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL TRAINING

In December 2012 the Council of the European Union issued a Recommendation which recognised the importance of non-formal and informal learning pathways in engaging with disadvantaged target groups including the young, the unemployed and the low skilled – and called upon all EU Member States to make arrangements for the validation of non-formal and informal learning by 2018.

Cross (2007) states that "Companies already use informal learning in employee development. It's an inevitable aspect of human behavior. Companies just don't do a good job of it as they might. Employees already learn more from one another than they do from formal programs" He also thinks that informal learning as of something that comes in programs.

Generally, informal learning is more spontaneous than that. An enlightened enterprise can benefit substantially from improving its learning ecosystem".

New educational models presume a change in the teaching-learning-evaluation relation, from informative to formative, from authority to liberty,

passing from the classical guidance of learning to the management of knowledge in the constructivist orientation.

The process of teaching is replaced with those of facilitating, counselling, guiding learning (more learning – less teaching); from training and educating to learning (from education to learning); from the didactics of instruction to that of building up knowledge; from the culture of transmitting to that of learning; from training to assisting learning. (Tudor, 76 (2013) 821–826, page 825)

Sefton-Green (in Latchem, 2014) concludes that technology-enhanced informal learning is an integral part of children's education because it not only develops technical knowledge and skills but it is *constructivist* (enabling them to reflect upon and construct their own understanding of the world), *experiential* (involving behavioural and affective as well as cognitive dimensions) and *situated* (joining and learning from online communities through social media). These are the very attributes needed for learning for development, for self-directed individuals to break out of the confines of traditional learning and use, share or create information in innovative ways and, thus, become force multipliers in their own environments.

Among the advantages gained from using formative strategies (specially multimedia strategies) we include: facilitates the effective management of learning, allowing individualization and personalization of learning, provides rapid information, stimulates discovery learning, the interactive learning model, provides opportunities for simulation, problem solving, deepening knowledge.

Using these strategies stimulates cognitive confrontations, determines active and interactive training and gives the learner cognitive and informational autonomy. The student has an active attitude, continuously stimulating personal reflection capacities, critical thinking, imagination, creativity, but also an interactive one, being forced to interact with other to solve teaching tasks. (Tudor, 78 (2013) 682 – 686, page 683)

The application of formal learning (training) is an essential way of learning when it is necessary to systematically and with guidance adopt a set of knowledge and skills or specific methodology to be used in the work (e.g. Medium-term planning, Program budgeting and programming of IPA). Regardless to that, in support of the adopted competencies in the workplace informal methods are also important (coaching, networking, mentoring, job-shadowing, on-the-job training, e-learning etc.) in order to ensure the sustainability of the acquired knowledge.

Numeral advantages of informal learning (individual, voluntary, self-guided, economical), as well as disadvantages in the sense of absence of the possibility to plan, are reasons why this aspect of education may not be treated as self-sufficient or sole form of education, but complementary and compatible with formal and non-formal education. Especially, when having in mind the process of reforms and accordingly the need for appropriate, systematic and result oriented learning.

Hague and Logan (2009) observe that encouraging and supporting self-

directed informal learning is important to development. It helps individuals and groups face economic, technological and social change, improve their health and life expectancy, achieve greater self-efficacy, self-confidence, well-being and happiness, and develop shared norms and values. Part of being an effective facilitator of informal learning (and non-formal education) it involves understanding how adults learn best.

However, in developing countries and traditional cultures learning for development not only requires adherence to these principles but appreciation of how beliefs, ideas, behaviours and practices are transmitted from one individual to another, from one community to another, and from one generation to another

CONCLUSION

Concept of lifelong learning connects individual parts of education and particular forms of education (formal, non-formal, informal) into a single composition. The growing popularity of proposals to increase government recognition of non-formal and informal learning pathways is based upon the realisation that such recognition makes this human capital more visible and more valuable to society at large (OECD, Pointers for Policy Development, 2012, page 1).

Like a well-cut diamond, eLearning has many facets. One facet is informal/social learning and another is formal learning. Both types of learning promote the acquisition of soft skills.

Continual investment in education and training is seen as essential for upgrading the skills of an ever-larger segment of the world's population in response to the growth of globalisation, broader markets and new technologies. Overall, within the OECD countries, over 40% of adults participate in formal and/or non-formal education in any given year.

They require reinforcement by non-formal educational practices and non-formal education needs to be a de facto partner in the lifelong process and accessible for all. These two collateral sometimes blurring forms of learning, informal learning and non-formal education, provide the basis for that critically important and enduring attitude: the desire to go on learning.

However, despite their importance, it is difficult to find research findings or case studies regarding these means of learning for development, particularly in the context of developing countries.

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